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THE CONFERENCE ON THE BANKS OF THE POTOMAC

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

AT THE

TWENTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN THE CITY OF WASHINGTON, D.C., MAY 9–15, 1901

EDITED BY

ISABEL C. BARROWS

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PREFACE.

The twenty-eighth annual meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Washington, D. C., May 9–15, John M. Glenn, Esq., of Baltimore, President. The attendance was larger than that of any previous Conference, except that of New York in 1898. The total number enrolled, not including those from the District of Columbia, was five hundred and twenty-eight, including guests from Canada, Cuba, Japan, Mexico, and Scotland. Massachusetts sent the largest number of delegates, seventy-six, thirty-one other States sending from one to fifty-eight delegates.

Nearly all the papers read at the section meetings are included in this volume, and are marked by an asterisk in the Table of Contents, also the discussions of the Committee on Needy Families in their Homes, which were furnished to the Conference by that committee, in preparation of a separate pamphlet embracing the entire report of the committee's work. This method is recommended to other committees desiring a permanent record of their discussions.

Attention is called to the discussion, pages 349 – 356, on the desirability of collecting certain sociological statistics in Washington, possibly as a part of the work of the Census Bureau.

The next meeting of the Conference will be held in Milwaukee, Wis., in May, 1902, Mr. Timothy Nicholson, Richmond, Ind., President.

NEW YORK, September, 1901.

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RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

PREAMBLE.

The National Conference of Charities exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. MEMBERSHIP.

All persons who are interested in charities and correction may become members by registering their names and paying the annual fee.

Honorary members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

The annual membership fee shall be $2.50, which shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference at the rate of one member for each $2.50 paid.

II. OFFICERS.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, three Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, six Secretaries, a Treasurer, and an Official Reporter and Editor, also a Corresponding Secretary for each state and territory. These officers shall be elected annually by the Conference.

III. COMMITTEES.

The standing committees shall be an Executive Committee and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, and all ex-Presidents *ex officio*, and seven members to be elected annually by the Conference.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a committee of seven on organization of the next Conference; also a committee of three on resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

At each annual session of the Conference, on the first day after the organization, the members present from each state or territory shall meet and appoint one of their number to represent them on a committee to be known as the Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting. The Committee on Time and Place shall meet on the afternoon or evening of the same day, for the purpose of receiving invitations from states, cities, or towns, and shall prepare a report which shall be presented to the Conference on the following morning. The vote on the report of the committee shall be taken by ballot, and every member of the Conference shall have the right to cast his ballot for the place of his choice, provided that no invitation shall be accepted which does not receive a majority of all the ballots cast; and provided, further, that the place of

meeting selected may be changed by the Executive Committee, if satisfactory local arrangements cannot be made.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The President shall be chairman, *ex officio*, of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference. He shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees, and to fill vacancies in, and add to the numbers of, any committee except the Executive Committee.

The General Secretary shall be *ex officio* Secretary of the Executive Committee, and Chairman of the Committee on Reports from the States. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with officers, committees, and others, under the direction of the President. He shall have charge of the distribution of all announcements and programmes, and shall direct the work of the Secretaries and be responsible for the correctness of the roll of members. He shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the reports of the Proceedings, receive all orders for the same, and direct their distribution.

He shall receive all membership fees and proceeds of sales of the reports of the Proceedings, and pay the same promptly to the Treasurer. He shall receive compensation for his services and an allowance for clerk hire and other expenses, the amount and time of payment of which shall be fixed by the Executive Committee from time to time.

The Treasurer shall receive and disburse all moneys of the Conference, all disbursements to be made only upon order of the General Secretary, approved by the President or by some member of the Executive Committee, to be named by the President.

The Official Reporter and Editor shall report and edit the Proceedings of the Conference. The President of the retiring Conference and the Official Editor and the General Secretary shall constitute a Publication Committee, and the work of editing shall be under the direction of the committee.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several states. It shall be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies.

V. The Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings. The Executive Committee may appoint sub-committees to attend to matters of detail.

Meetings of the Executive Committee shall be called by the President of the Conference, and five members shall constitute a quorum, provided that, when the Conference is not in session, three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary and expenses of the Reporter, and all necessary printing except the Proceedings, in such amount as the Executive Committee may determine.

The President, in consultation with the Chairman of each Standing Committee, shall arrange the programme for the sessions and section meetings, and shall so arrange it as to give opportunity for free discussion; provided that the programme, before final adoption, shall be submitted to the Executive Committee for its approval.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committee, and no paper shall be read in the absence of the writer except by unanimous consent.

VI. Section Meetings.

The Section Meetings are designed for familiar discussion. Not more than one paper shall be read at any Section Meeting, and that paper shall be limited to fifteen minutes. If possible, papers shall be printed and distributed beforehand, that the entire meeting may be given to discussion. No afternoon meetings shall be inserted in the official programme.

VII. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference, speakers shall be limited to five minutes each, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VIII. Amendments.

These rules shall remain in force from year to year, unless amended; and all additions or amendments shall be submitted to the Executive Committee before being acted on by the Conference.

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I.

Conference Sermon.

THE PROGRESS OF COMPASSION.

BY REV. GEORGE HODGES, D.D.,

DEAN OF THE EPISCOPAL THEOLOGICAL SCHOOL, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

"Lord, wilt thou that we command fire to come down from heaven, and consume them, even as Elias did?" — ST. LUKE ix. 54.

"We know that we have passed from death unto life, because we love the brethren." — 1 JOHN iii. 14.

These words were spoken by the same man. You see how different they are. One expresses the spirit of narrowness, of hard prejudice, of inconsiderate passion: the other is the utterance of fraternal affection. Yet they came out of the same lips, out of the same heart.

The people of a Samaritan village having refused hospitality to the Master and his disciples because they were Jews, and had their faces set to go to Jerusalem, the apostle John proposes to make them suffer for it. He suggests thunder and lightning. He quite forgets that the men, women, and children of this village are really men, women, and children, with sensitive nerves, with human affections, to whom pain and death mean just what they would mean to him. He forgets that they are fathers and mothers, and sons and daughters, with homes and friends,— human beings, having souls. To his mind they are a common crowd, wherein he has no acquaintances. And, being offended with them,— justly, as he thinks,— he wishes to burn them alive.

But, after a good many years of Christian experience, all the time coming into better knowledge of Jesus Christ, and thus getting to be a better Christian, the apostle with the hasty temper has an altogether different spirit. When he wrote the Epistle out of which

came that fine expression of brotherly love, he had completely outgrown all that old disposition. He could not possibly have repeated then what he said in Samaria. He was a different man. If, as is commonly thought, he wrote the book of the Revelation, it appears that this growth out of darkness into light was a slow process. For the book of the Revelation was not written by a saint, that is evident enough. It has a good many dark places in it: a good deal of old, fierce, animal hatred lingers about it. The writer was no ideal Christian who loved his enemies. He wanted to see his enemies' pain and blood. In any case, the fact of growth is clear. The long distance between these two sentences shows that sufficiently. When we put them together, we see out of what unpromising materials a saint was made. The perfections of the saints are a discouragement rather than an inspiration. Looking upon them, we say to ourselves, "We can never attain that." But the sins of the saints give us help and cheer. They assure us that even the saints were of like passions with us, and that they won their faith and serenity of soul by just such struggles as enter into our own experience. They bear witness to the fact of progress.

The reference to Elijah reminds us that the growth of the spirit of compassion in Saint John is the symbol of a similar change in the feelings of people in general. For, in the old time to which Saint John referred, Elijah represented all that was good. Whatever he did was right. He called down white-hot lightning upon several companies of soldiers whose only offence was that they obeyed orders; but he ended his stern life, men said, by ascending into the blessed heaven in a chariot of fire. Accordingly, it seemed plain to Elijah's contemporaries that God liked that sort of thing,—liked blood and flame. It seemed to them in no way inconsistent that a man should be the minister of God and at the same time, for no very weighty reason, desolate a hundred homes. Or, rather, they paid no heed whatever to the hundred homes. "The king sent unto [Elijah] a captain of fifty with his fifty. And he went up to him; and, behold, he sat on the top of an hill. And he spake unto him, Thou man of God, the king hath said, Come down. And Elijah answered and said to the captain of fifty, If I be a man of God, then let fire come down from heaven and consume thee and thy fifty. And there came down fire from heaven, and consumed him and his fifty." Think of it! "If I be a man of God, then let fire come down from heaven and consume

thee." What an amazing credential! A man is proved to be a man of God by the unprovoked murder of a captain and fifty soldiers! People used to think that miracles were contradictions to the laws of nature; but this miracle contradicted the justice of God. And nobody realized that! This is perhaps the most surprising part of it. Everybody praised Elijah. The fifty soldiers attracted no attention. It seems not to have been considered for a moment that they were individual persons, of flesh and blood, with thoughts and feelings, with names given them by tender mothers, with families of little children, and wives who loved them. They were nothing but soldiers, things in uniform, made of tin or wood, fuel for fire. It seems to us so natural and necessary that Jesus should have disapproved of Elijah that we find it hard to realize the astonishment with which Saint John and the others must have listened to his words. To their confident invocation of the example of Elijah he answered, "Ye know not what spirit ye are of." It was the announcement of another step in social progress. In a cruel world, where men had scarcely begun to outgrow the fierceness which they had inherited from the beasts, there was now proclaimed a new idea, a new duty, a new obligation of fraternal relationship, a new affection.

When the disciples learned what spirit they were of, the difference between them and the men of the old time was like the difference between the Saint John of the Third Gospel and the Saint John of the First Epistle. And because Christianity was from the beginning a social religion, which impelled every man to share with his neighbor every good thing which he had, they who became brothers of the new life brought their neighbors into that holy brotherhood. There had been compassionate persons before in all ages and in all religions. No man can say when men began to be tender-hearted. But the coming of Christ was the beginning of a compassionate society. It established a new ideal of social life. It extended that fine fraternity which the Jews had shown toward their own people, until it included the race. It was understood that in the kingdom of heaven — that is, in the Christian state — the citizens would not only love one another, according to the old commandment, but would love even their enemies, and that the measure of their love would be the divine self-sacrifice of Jesus Christ himself.

Thus began the progress of compassion. Compassion signifies not pity, but sympathy, not the love which stands without and looks

on, but the love which enters into the interests, the needs, the joys and sorrows, the hopes and fears of another's life. Compassion is fellow-feeling, fraternal understanding and affection, the quality whereby we put ourselves in our neighbor's place. It is the recognition of the individual, and the ministration of our heart and hand to the enrichment of his life in the spirit of Jesus. It is the high virtue to which this Conference is committed, the ideal after which we are all striving, the common impulse which has brought us here together, the heart of our discussion. The purpose of these meetings is to set forward more and more the progress of compassion.

It must be confessed that that progress has been amazingly and perplexingly slow. Some deny that there is any progress at all, holding that the world is as bad to-day as ever it was. Some even argue that the family of man is actually growing worse. It is plain that the progress of compassion is not a triumphal progress. It cannot compare, for instance, with the progress of scientific discovery. We have not advanced in knowledge of our neighbors and in the control of social forces in anything like the way in which we have advanced in knowledge of the material world and in the control of physical forces.

Christianity began as the religion of compassion. The essential characteristic revelation of it is that God is our Father, and that we are, therefore, brethren; and its message to society is that we are to act and speak and think like brothers. Jesus preached the gospel of compassion. He came to help men to be fraternal, tender-hearted, kindly affectioned one toward another. All that he said, all that he did,— even to the death upon the cross,— all that he was as Son of God and Son of Man, had to do directly with the progress of compassion. It seems sometimes, in reading the New Testament, as if this were the whole of religion. The creed, so far as it voices the metaphysical side of Christianity; the Church, so far as it expresses the political aspects of Christianity,— where are they in those pages? The splendid chapters are filled from beginning to end with inspiration to brotherly behavior. The important thing is fraternal conduct. That the strong should help the weak; that the rich should minister to the poor; that the saints should save the sinners,— this is the purpose for which the Christian religion exists. And at the judgment-seat of God, Christ says, this is the one matter by which our destiny shall be determined.

But the time came when the Christians contradicted almost everything which Jesus Christ cared for. In the midst of the wars of Christian nations; in the midst of the shameful contentions of Christian parties, with the persecutions, the cruelties, the racks and wheels and stakes which accompanied them; in the midst of the class distinctions which ran across Christian society, with the poverty, the slavery, the oppression, the unregarded suffering which they entailed,— compassion seemed to be extinct.

It must indeed be remembered that the perspective of the histories is not true to life. The bad takes a great deal more space and makes much more interesting reading than the good. A hundred trains of cars go uneventfully to their destinations without mention: one goes into the ditch, and the story fills the papers. A multitude of decent people live their honest lives and keep up the average of human goodness, and nobody notices them: a few notorious persons make more noise in the world than all of them put together. So, although the princes and the prelates did unmistakably misbehave themselves in extraordinary and outrageous ways, the plain people were better Christians than we commonly think. In spite of all the astounding contradictions of its spirit, the religion of the compassionate Christ lived on.

It must be remembered also that they were fierce and brutal folk with whom the Christian religion had to deal. Those wild ancestors of ours, who out of the interminable forests of Europe hurled themselves upon the Roman Empire, had many sturdy virtues; but it must be confessed that the sturdiness was extremely evident, and that the gentler virtues, which develop compassion, were mostly lacking. The wonder is not that the progress of compassion was so slow, but that, in the face of the difficulties which were in the way, it made such progress as it did.

It did make progress, slowly, but steadily. Partly by the preaching, but still more by the example of good Christians, men came to regard one another differently. They began to see what spirit they were of. And then at last the twentieth century began, in whose initial year we meet to hold this congress of compassion. All that has gone before has been by way of preparation. The rough tasks of the race have had to be performed. There were founts to be filled and cities to be builded. There were wars to be fought, for lack of knowledge of any more reasonable ways of arriving at justice and the

truth. There were inventions to be made and mills to be erected and industries to be developed. The material side of life demanded attention, and got it. And it is true that we are still living in the swing and stress of these importunate interests. But we are going to live differently and better. "The time is coming and now is, when the dead shall hear the voice of the Son of God; and they that hear shall live." Dead? How dead? Dead in ignorance, dead in obscurity and monotony, dead in hopeless poverty, dead in trespasses and sins. They who are buried alive shall hear the voice of the Son of God, and shall come forth. The time is coming and now is when a man shall be universally esteemed as of more worth than any amount of bricks and mortar, any number of mills or banks, any sum of money, any sort of material prosperity. The time was when Christian people were greatly interested in the relation between religion and science. Then followed a time when the discussions in the churches turned upon the relation between religion and Scripture; but we live to-day in a time when the supreme concern of good men touches the relation between religion and society. The interest is centred upon man. How to bring the new material prosperity to bear upon man so that it may contribute to the happiness and the goodness of all; how to distribute wealth so that they who have it may most faithfully discharge their stewardship; how to change the common town into a city of God,—these are our present problems. It is significant that the doctrine of election, which once was interpreted as God's choice of a certain nation to give them his especial blessing, and then was interpreted as God's choice of certain persons, without regard to nationality, to be happy with him hereafter in heaven, is now understood to mean God's choice of certain persons to make their neighbors happy here and now. The elect are they who have great privileges, spiritual or material, in order that they may serve as God's stewards. And the change in the interpretation of this doctrine is illustrative of a like change in other doctrines, whereby religion is coming into closer contact with our common life. So it is with art, so it is with music, so it is with literature, so it is with business and with politics. Never have there been so many different people with so many different interests intent on making this present world a better world to live in. And this progress of compassion is proceeding in society, as it proceeded in the heart of the apostle John, by an increasing recognition of the importance of the individual.

Consider the two kinds of endeavor which are represented by this Conference of Charities and Correction. We have here in mind two kinds of persons,— the dependent and the delinquent. There has been more intelligent service rendered to these two classes of society during the past quarter of a century — certainly during the past half-century — than during all the ages since these problems first confronted the family of man.

Take, for example, on the side of charity, the treatment of the insane. Jesus dealt with these persons in the light of his wisdom and his love. There were a great many of them, and they were continually appealing to him to help them. They cried out to him to expel the devils that were in them. And he did it. He met them with the extended hand of kindness, and treated them gently and reasonably and with unfailing and effective compassion. And they were healed. The good men of the early Church continued to regard the insane in this Christian way. They had a special minister to care for them, and an assigned place in the congregation; and every Sunday, at an appointed moment in the service, prayers were made for their relief.

But there followed an "era of neglect," when the insane were left uncared for, thrust out from the society of their fellows and from the protection of human habitations, and exposed, like strayed animals, to stone-throwing and abuse. And after that came an "era of detention," when they were kept in horrible confinement, like unclean beasts, in sheds and cellars, the more violent chained to the floor, chilled with cold water, and beaten with whips. During these long ages the insane were outside the horizon of compassion. It was not until the very end of the eighteenth century that anybody cared. The great asylums, the beneficent hospitals, the wise and tender treatment, which are now the portion of the insane, belong mainly to the years of our own generation. It is chiefly within the memory of men still living that the splendid work has been done which has given these unfortunate folk the blessings of comfort and happiness, and more and more the blessing of recovery.

Take, for example, on the side of correction, the tragic history of the treatment of the delinquent classes. When Jesus was here, he was called "the friend of sinners." It was a title all his own. Nobody else deserved it or desired it. To the good people of his day a sinner was a person to be avoided or to be punished. The sin

separated the sinner from all his respectable neighbors. The only interest which they now took in him was directed toward making him suffer for it. When Jesus talked with sinners, when he sat at table with them, when he declared that his mission was to minister to sinners, people were annoyed and scandalized. Even the best of his disciples found the lesson hard to learn. Presently almost everybody forgot it. Then, for centuries and centuries, the common feeling was that a sinner is a person to be punished. Compassion was not meant for him. The jail and, eventually, the gibbet in this world and hell in the next were his portion. And the jails were indescribable places, miserable and hideous almost beyond imagination; and the gibbet and its preliminaries were occasions of fiendish torture; and hell was preached, as you and I have never heard it preached nor ever will. The sinner had caused pain, and now he must be made to feel pain himself. That was the theory,— an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth, and so on, according to the rough law which had confronted the angry passions of a savage people. I call it a rough law, and say that it suited the conditions of a savage people; and you all agree in that description. But the fact is that it continued to be the commonly accepted principle of the courts, until a few years ago, everywhere. Its repudiation illustrates the progress of compassion. You who meet here to consider how best to deal with the delinquent classes begin with promises which your fathers were still debating. Your reformatories, your indeterminate sentences, your systems of progressive classification and conditional release, are new ideas, based upon a new theory,— that the prison ought to be a place not only of suffering, but of salvation; and that theory rests upon His teaching and example who was called the "Friend of sinners."

These changes in our treatment of the defective and the delinquent classes are proofs of what I said,— that, after centuries of a progress of compassion so slow that sometimes there seemed to be no progress, so slow that sometimes the current seemed to be setting back, we are now arrived at a time when the river of human kindness flows full and strong toward the ocean of God's love. They illustrate the assertion that the gains of our generation in sympathetic and intelligent consideration of our fellow-men exceed all that has been done for the unfortunate and the vicious in all the ages since the Lord Jesus came to tell us that we are all brothers in the

family of God. They re-enforce the prophecy that we are now entering into the century of compassion.

These instances of progress, thus teaching a lesson of encouragement, teach also another lesson which is even more to the purpose,— a lesson of method. There is a progress of compassion, that is plain. What makes it? What is the process of it? What is the heart of it? The heart of it is a recognition of the individual in the spirit of Jesus.

Saint John stands before the Samaritan village as the church and the state have stood before the defective, the dependent, and the delinquent classes. The trouble with him is that he does not know any of the villagers. Their welfare is to him an impersonal and hence an indifferent matter. Then he lives with Jesus Christ. Gradually he enters into the mind of Jesus. He comes to look at men from Jesus' point of view, and that changes everything. Thenceforth he not only appreciates the fact that crowds are made up of human individuals, but he knows that every one of these individuals is a relative of his. This is the method of all Christian social progress. So long as the insane were herded together as a class, it was easy to neglect or maltreat them. When for the first time they were recognized as individuals, each with a personal history and a personal possibility, each to be studied and treated by himself, then the advance began. So long as offenders against the law were gathered into great indiscriminate companies behind bars, made to march in the lock step, and regarded as a criminal class, it was easy to maintain a system which actually made men every day worse than they were the day before, and sent them out at the expiration of their sentence to prey again upon society. When the evil-doer was seen to be an individual human being, with ties of kinship and friendship, with motives good as well as bad, capable of better things, committing crime not so much on account of the wickedness of his heart as on account of the enforced narrowness of his life, progress began.

This recognition of the individual is characteristic of the new philanthropy. The old philanthropy was chiefly for the good of the philanthropist. It gave him an opportunity for the exercise of benevolent emotions, brought him a pleasant sense of satisfaction, and contributed — he hoped — to the eternal welfare of his soul. Whether it was what the poor man needed, whether it contributed to make him a better man, and to save him out of his poverty, the

philanthropist did not sufficiently consider. The crowd of poor folk had not been individualized. They were still a crowd, wherein the philanthropist knew nobody well. The new philanthropy begins with acquaintance. It appears in the social settlement, where the privileged live as neighbors of the less privileged, and know them familiarly, and study the actual conditions and the consequent needs of the neighborhood sympathetically and intelligently. It appears in the associated charities, where the "friendly visitor" justifies that excellent name, and brings to the poor, the discouraged, and the perplexed the inestimable aid of personal interest and fraternal service.

All efficient social endeavor proceeds along this line. There must indeed be great projects for general betterment. Questions of rent and housing, of homes and wages, of municipal sanitation,— physical and moral,— must be decided, and decided right. But they are all tested by the individual. Everything which proceeds upon the assumption that human beings can be properly dealt with in any wholesale way will break down. It cannot work. The division of the large boys' club into small groups, the abandonment of the barrack method in homes and hospitals and reformatories, and the creating of new institutions with many small houses instead of one big one, illustrate the present tendency. The strongest political institution in this country, which maintains its steady hold upon our greatest city, and will maintain it in spite of the best citizens, owes its strength to the recognition of the individual. The Tammany politician knows everybody in his ward, and is personally interested in everybody. Excellent and eloquent gentlemen, in the enthusiasm of political campaigns, go over and promise many excellent things, and would perform them if they had a chance; but the people side with the local politician, against their own interests, because he is their friend. The essential thing is friendship: not alms, but a friend; not an institution, but a friend; not a reform bill, but a friend. The chief thing which can be accomplished by the discussions of this Conference is the betterment of friendship, so that men shall go back to their work in a more fraternal spirit, putting their hearts into it, and lifting up those who are down, as Jesus did, by giving them a friendly hand.

We are in danger of professionalism and of indifference and of disregard for the individual, into which we are tempted by the subtile

influences of routine. A man may be a charity worker and a social reformer and a minister of the gospel, and yet have a heart as hard as ever beat in the breast of the Pharaoh of the Exodus. Saint John was a good man, and yet he committed a multitude of people to destruction; and this he did, not because they had offended him, but because they had failed to recognize and receive his Master. His allegiance to Jesus Christ, as he conceived it, hardened his heart. Many men have similarly had their hearts hardened by their allegiance to excellent theories and to good resolutions.

The remedy is in Jesus Christ. He alone can save us from the temptations which, by the nature of our work, beset us. Without him, we fall into the vices of routine and doctrine. With him, we gain the saving grace to recognize the individual, and to be not only the benefactors, but the friends of men. We must be touched by his spirit. We must feel the inspiration of his life. Then shall we set forward in ourselves and in the society about us the progress of compassion.

II.

Opening Addresses.

THE HEART OF THE PROBLEM.

BY REV. S. G. SMITH, D.D., LL.D.

Mr. President, Members of the Conference, Ladies and Gentlemen,— We cannot have been in your beautiful city even for a few hours, we cannot have felt the great meaning of this most significant of all cities, significant because it is the capital of the greatest nation in the world, we cannot have felt our hearts moved by the cordial welcome which has already been given us, without being stirred to ask in some deep way what is the ultimate meaning of life, and how are we related to this great problem of human living.

We have just passed through the eulogy of the last century. We have listened to the summing up of all its great achievements in mechanics, its discoveries in science, its advancement in comforts, its enrichment of human life, and its broadening of human thought; and we have felt glad and thankful for the work of the fathers which it has been ours to inherit. But, standing to-night in the dawn of the new time, with our faces not to the past, but rather to the future, are we not somewhat touched by that feeling that stirs in the minds of men, and which is almost like the hush of expectation that fell upon the world before the Christ was born? Have we not felt this present expectation, asking what shall be the unfolded mystery of the new time? Is there no higher gift for the race than the thing which we can see, which we can handle,— the comforts of the home, the luxuries of life? Shall it not be that, as the last century rifled nature of many of her profoundest secrets and richest treasures,— may we not dare to hope that the century that awaits us shall yield new possibilities in man himself? It is with this thought that I come to you to-night. I would speak to you some words on the validity of the spiritual man.

The errors of the past, the great errors, have arisen from lack of imagination. I know that most people believe that the imagination is a source of much of the error of the world. But, whenever a man fails to be moved by his imagination, he is an old man, and has ceased his activities. A nation can never be led merely by its wisdom. It is because the people are possessed of enough imagination to give birth to an elemental passion that a nation is lifted to the power of broader achievements. I think within the last year or two the United States of America has been a significant illustration of that possibility.

In regard to space, the first error of man, a great error, was a belief that this world is the largest thing in the universe. That was the first great error, like that of savages who can name a part of their island, but never have a conception of the whole island. When men had a conception of the world like that, they thought, for thousands of years, that they were rich enough. It was not until a man, a German, with his telescope multiplied the worlds and dwarfed the earth, enriching men with the possession of a universe, that space was discovered. For generations it was believed that man had been here but six thousand years. That was the result of the lack of imagination. How far back man goes we do not know. A hundred thousand years is a conservative estimate: a million years, others say; but the imagination must have its play.

It is a law, I believe, with philologists in reading an old manuscript, if they have two readings, one easy to understand and the other difficult, to choose the difficult one, because it is probably the right one. The easy one was made by some stupid copyist, who did not understand the author's thought. It has been the error of all of us, and of our fathers, in trying to read the great facts of nature, man, and human life, to choose the easy way. The trouble with materialism is that it is too easy and simple. It makes a man out of the mud, and creates his possibilities out of the flesh. It develops his civilization to correspond. But it is too easy, because the problem has elements so difficult and insoluble that materialism has never been able to explain a single tear or a single human sigh. It was about forty years ago that Thomas Huxley, poet of nature, great leader of our modern life, prophet of the new time, made the mistake of supposing that in some way or other we might be able to contrive a bill of fare that would make the human machine equal to

the production of a sonnet of Shakespeare or a dialogue of Plato. Forty years have gone, but we are no nearer the materialistic evolution of the sonnet of Shakespeare or the dialogue of Plato than we were when Huxley was in his prime as a teacher.

What is our problem as charity workers, as workers in reform? That depends upon the answer to the question, What is the human material with which we deal? That answers, and that alone can resolve our question. Pardon me if I protest against an undue emphasis upon what are known as the abnormal classes as our material. I know something about what has been said and written from this point of view. I have myself cultivated enough skill in detecting stigmata to pick out some of the marks in the ladies and gentlemen before me indicating the bad direction in which they are likely to go. There is no doubt about it, there are abnormal classes; but they make a small percentage of the whole. Some human beings are born, apparently, so far as we can see, to a cruel destiny. Certain ones are born idiots in mind, others idiots in will, others yet idiots in conscience. There is no doubt about these deficiencies, but the word "degenerate" has been vastly overworked. This is not our material. Our material does not consist of the abnormal classes, but of the misguided classes. If we can take care of the misguided classes and cure them, we may well turn from the problem of charity, leaving the abnormal classes to the physician. If our material is abnormal, with no hope of cure, kill them off if you will, if you can find hangmen enough; but that is not our problem. Our problem is to lift people with human love and patience, the love and patience of saints and saviors who work because men and women are to be believed in, helped, upheld, saved.

The time has come when we may say frankly and boldly what are the last conclusions of modern science as to the spiritual nature of man. Physical psychology has done a great deal for us. It has been a study of the senses and the relation of the nervous system to the unfolding of faculty in the child. But physiological psychology has not stopped there. The greatest name in the study of the human brain and nervous system is, perhaps, Dr. Flechsig, of Leipzig. In writing on the capacity of the brain and nervous system, he tells us that a certain proportion of the brain is given up to hearing, another to sight, another to touch, and yet these centres of activity are associated together in such wise as to combine the whole motor

and sensory system into one. He adds that a child born into this world is born without any nerve tracts whatever in his brain. The sensory and motor system require but one-third of the great brain. Then he stops and asks: What is it that uses the other two-thirds? Where is its life? Two-thirds of the great brain is reserved for other and higher uses. It is related to the invisible world, of whose realities all human knowledge is but a parable.

I come, therefore, to speak to you in behalf of the psychical interpretation of man based upon the mysteries of the physiological laboratory, in the name of the highest and finest conclusions of modern knowledge, which believes in the greatness and in the capacity of man, which lifts men out of the mere flesh to the possibility of spiritual grandeur, as Copernicus humbled the world that he might make it great.

As man himself is chiefly psychical, we have come to learn that his environment is chiefly psychical as well. We have pretty nearly got through with heredity. We have found children out of the slums, born illegitimately, with all sorts of disability, lifted into decent manhood by the application of mercy and education. I say we have got through with the dangers of heredity, just as we have got through with our abnormal classes.

And now we come to the time when "environment" must be questioned and must give answer. Environment has also been overworked. Science has shown us that geography has had an influence in the development of individuals and of nations. Men in early life as primitive beings were at the mercy of the elements. Primitive man must eat the food next to him. He must bear the storms that beat on him. He had no shelter from the sky above him. Man himself in all these years has been building for himself artificial protection against this physical environment. He has roofed himself with houses. He has elevated them into palaces, and sometimes ennobled them into temples. He has ransacked the world for food, he has delivered himself from the physical tyranny of the physical world, and has surrounded himself with the apparatus of civilization.

If it were possible to repeat all the glories of the great days of the past, by planting men in the right places, how we would search for our Gardens of Eden, that we might have new Adams and Eves! But practical men know that it is not possible. You may visit Athens, and yonder you shall see the white glory of Pentelicus,

crowned with its purple beauty of light; but there is no hand of Phidias to carve that marble into human beauty and human passion. Now, as in the old days, the "many-voiced sea" dashes upon the Ægean shore; but there is no Homer to catch its music and sing it down to other days. Jerusalem still stands girded by its hills, as in the days of old; but there is no Isaiah walking its streets and singing eternal hope into the hearts and lives of the sons of men. Geography is a great science, but it has also been vastly overworked. Let us give it rest, and reduce it to its normal position in the thoughts and aspirations of man.

Meantime we have great psychical creations. We have that tremendous complex of forces that we call social laws, that have come down to us with the aggregations of the wisdom and conscience of past generations, and that are builded into the bulwarks of our jurisprudence to protect our civilization. We have our language, enriched through thousands of years. We have our literatures. We have the common ideals that thrill from soul to soul. We have the great wealth of the social life that surrounds the individual. What are these forces? Is it the sky above us? Is it the sea of waters? Is it the earth on which we walk? Are these the forces that lay their right hand upon us? Is not the real force in our institutions, in our language, our ideas, our sympathies? And are not these psychical? There is a spiritual life round about us that influences us and protects us. Let environment look us in the face, tell us what it is, and it will yield its secret: "I, too, am psychical, born of the Spirit of God and of the spirit of man."

Now, if it be true that man is psychical, environment is psychical, and civilization is psychical, it follows naturally, does it not, that reformation must be psychical? How often have good people been disappointed! They have taken somebody from miserable surroundings, put him into a home of neatness and order, and said, "Go to, now, be happy and comfortable." How often has that happened, and how often has neatness and order been trodden under the swine's foot! East London, reformed by the county council, resulted in fifteen acres of hell swept clean; but it was not delivered from the flame of passion. The slum people simply sought new haunts and made new slums on the south side of the Thames, which must in turn be cleansed. But when you take a slum soul and deliver and develop that, when you correct what is within the man,

when you create order within, he will take care of the external, he will create order outside him, because he simply must. New institutions do not make new men, but new men make new institutions.

This brings us to understand what we mean by the two motives of our work, one the pain motive and the other the love motive. We sometimes wonder how it is that these two things are to exist together. How can we take our scientific philanthropy, and make it in harmony with the humane instincts of the human soul? He who has made the heavens and the earth has done it. The pain motive is one of the universal methods of all civilization. No race has ever come up out of its rudeness save at the price of scourging. God has never been afraid to let people suffer that they might grow great, and he has only been able to do it because he loved with an everlasting patience that made it possible for him to wait. And you and I must learn to unite the pain motive with the love motive, for it is by these two that human life is lifted into freedom and into power.

And all this is summed up in the scientific validity of man's faith in the world in which he lives, faith in human nature, faith in the great God above us and about us. I think that the beautiful singer of the Victorian era, in his "In Memoriam," sums it up well for us when he says: —

"I found Him not in world or sun,
Or eagle's wing, or insect's eye;
Nor thro' the questions men may try,
The petty cobwebs we have spun:

"If e'er, when faith had fall'n asleep,
I heard a voice, 'Believe no more,'
And heard an ever-breaking shore
That tumbled in the Godless deep;

"A warmth within the breast would melt
The freezing reason's colder part,
And like a man in wrath the heart
Stood up and answer'd, 'I have felt.'

"No, like a child in doubt and fear:
But that blind clamor made me wise;
Then was I as a child that cries,
But, crying, knows his father near;

"And what I am beheld again
What is, and no man understands;
And out of darkness came the hands
That reach thro' nature, moulding men."

A BLAST OF CHEER.

BY JACOB A. RIIS, NEW YORK.

Mr. President, Members of the Conference, Gentlemen and Ladies,— I told your chairman — and, when I look over the great body of men and women come from so far to compare notes on the work that is to make the world a better world to live in, I am more than ever convinced — that I really don't belong here. I have no claim to be counted of and among you. Certainly, I am not an expert on "correction." I was a worker once in a body that had started in to set some things right that were crooked,— one of twelve trustees, each one of whom felt that the other eleven were entirely competent to run the shop; and, when we met at the end of that year and heard the story of how narrowly we had escaped disaster of several kinds, one of us, a good Methodist brother, said, "Brethren, so far as I can see, but for the merciful interposition of Providence, we should all have been in jail, as we deserve. Let us pray." No, I am not an expert on correction. Some ways I can make out that are plain enough for any one to see — this, for instance: that pretty nearly the worst use you can put a boy to is to put him in jail. In my experience, I have found that a boys' club is vastly more effective in dealing with slum problems than a policeman's club, or any number of them. Not that your boy or my boy is an angel,— far from it. Why should he be? You are not. When mine shows any signs of that kind, I send out for castor oil and the doctor. I have had experience. There is just about so much of angelic goodness to any boy, and it is pretty much all of it in the looks. But the fact that he isn't an angel is no reason why he should be put in jail, particularly if he has done nothing worse than play hookey from school. I am not an advocate of hookey. I have had experience in that line, too. But let us be reasonable. Yesterday I came down from Vermont, and the train ran along a mountain stream in which the fish were leaping, the sun glinting on their scales as they rose. Now, to be honest, I didn't want to come here at all. I wanted to go fishing. And I tell you that the boy who could think of it all on a day like yesterday,— of the sunlight and the rippling brook and the fish leaping in it, so

glad of life,— the boy who could see it all in his mind's eye, and sit there and drone out his lessons, and not want to scoot if he got the chance, that boy was a miserable little lunkhead, and no good. You know he was. I can see it in your eyes. You've been boys, too. Don't let us forget.

Such a boy is not a criminal. He ought not to be in jail; and, when we put him there we should go in instead, or else be forced to sit in the kind of schools he rebelled against, so that we might get our senses. Ah, brethren, how much lack of understanding there is even in us who are trying to grapple with the most delicate of all human problems! How much we need a baptism of common sense next to a baptism of humble faith! What right have we to rail? Eleven years a committee, of which I am one, struggled with a case from Poverty Gap. The man was a wife-beater and a drunkard. The jail was meant for him. There was no other way to save the rest. Nineteen times we had him there. And, when the other day he died, his wife spent the $150 insurance, upon which she had paid the weekly premium all those years, with Heaven knows what toil and sacrifice,— spent every cent of it on a wake and a fine funeral over the rapscallion. I felt like going off and smashing something when I heard it, until I remembered how we, in the greatest city in the land, used to put the little lads in jail for nothing else in the world than not going to schools that were like dungeons, and into which he couldn't get, anyhow, because there wasn't room. We do it yet; but we have given up classifying them by measurement,— thieves, truants, burglars, bad boys, and boys whose only offence was that they had no one to care for them, all in a mess, grouped by measure, 4 feet, 4 feet 7, and over 4 feet 7! That was *correction* for you with a vengeance. In the opposition shop they didn't even measure him. It was sectarian opposition,— a question of candles. The brother who measured the boys would sooner have died than have admitted a candle to burn on *his* church altar. That is not to say that all candles shed light. This one did not. It was a tallow dip. When I went across with a sore heart to see what classification they adopted there, I found they did not have any. They also had burglars and truants under one roof; and, when I asked my good brother if it was fair to the truants to mix them as he did, the answer I got was, "Would it be fair to the burglar to set him apart with the stamp upon him?" That, I take it, was the *charity* end of it. Was it any more hopeful than the other?

But that was not what I came to tell you: there is enough of that. I did not come here to sound a note of defeat. That never wins any victories; and we are in this fight to win or to perish, and we shall not perish. I would blow a blast of cheer on my bugle; and, when you know that it comes from the police reporter's office in Mulberry Street, where the outlook is always grim, then you may know that it is an honest blast. If you can see the dawn there, it is bright enough for all the world to make out.

There was a time when that note did not come naturally to my bugle. It was because I was swamped in the wrecks, in the broken pieces. I saw only the failures, the wickedness, that go through Mulberry Street in an unending procession. I saw poverty and ignorance begetting sin and crime, not the self-sacrifice, the real charity, the human heroism that went hand in hand with them and more than redeemed the evil. I had not then met the Kid. Who was he? A tough, arrested in a midnight raid on a saloon and brought to police headquarters by two angry policemen, blood-bespattered and torn as was he; for the Kid *was* a tough. They indexed his name and hung his picture in the rogues' gallery, and made him out as bad as the worst, which he was, I guess; and then they took him over to jail. I went along, for there was something about the Kid that struck a chord; but he hadn't a word to say, except that he didn't want any of my "guff." We got to Broadway, where there was a jam of cable cars; and, while we stood waiting, the tangle came undone, and one car swept down the street beyond control, with a frightened gripman trying desperately to stop it, and banging his bell like mad. All at once there was a flash, a leap: the Kid had escaped! I saw him take a flying leap across the street, and thought vaguely that he stood a good chance to give them the slip; and then I saw, we all saw, the frightful thing,—a little toddling baby in the middle of the track crowing and holding up its little hand to the clanging bell that was not ten feet away; saw the frantic mother held fast by men on the other sidewalk, who turned their heads away so as to not see the murder done. And that moment down shot the Kid, and grabbed the baby and bore it away safe. One chance in ten thousand he had, friends, to save his skin; and thief, tough, midnight marauder that he was, he never hesitated an instant. What do you think of him?

I did not know "Fighting Mary" in the days of my discouragement.

She was the girl in the Seventh Avenue Industrial School of the Children's Aid Society whom they had their doubts about inviting to the Thanksgiving Day dinner because of her record. Oh, yes, she had earned her name. But better counsel prevailed, and she came, and found a whole little mince pie for her very own. It was her first, I make no doubt. She stroked it and she smelled it and she gloated over it; and, when she had satisfied every sense, she took and crammed it into her dress-pocket, all warm and pulpy as it was, with a defiant look at the school that snickered, and the words, "For mother!"

That was the good streak in Mary no one had made out. They have two mince pies nowadays always,— one for Mary and one for mother. She taught them a lesson they needed. Ah, brethren, human nature is not all bad, or even half bad. I looked out upon Mulberry Street with a new faith, and remembered that in my Bible I had found two promises, two distinct promises of a life hereafter, from the lips of our Saviour, one to the thief on the cross, the other to the child "whose angel beholds the face of my Father who is in heaven." How, then, should I despair? This clay, so distorted here in the moulding, shall some day put on incorruptibility. He thought it good enough to take on man's shape, and call that poor wreck brother. Am I too good to own the relationship?

If you believe this, then even the spectre of heredity has lost its power over you. It is a doctrine of despair, anyhow, if it isn't a disease of the liver to be banished with a pill. There is a heredity, yes. We know it to our cost. But, in the last analysis, what is it but the sum of the environment that should have been mended generations back? It is our business to attend to it in our time, so that it shall not be sent down the line to curse generations yet unborn. No; if they cast up heredity against you, you fling it back in their teeth, and tell them that our real heredity is this: that we are children of God. So we can do everything. There is none to make us afraid. No: give me the other doctrine, that of environment. God put us here on earth with hands and heads that we might work out his purposes with us ourselves; and he bade us be neighborly, for our own good. So is the environment most quickly improved.

We read the commandment wrong. We understood, by being our brother's keeper, that we were to be his jail-keeper; for we built jails where we should have built schools. I read the statistics from

the reformatory in my own state, and learn that three-fourths of all the young men who land there from our great cities are without moral sense, while yet they are not lacking intellectually. That means to me that they are without character; and, indeed, the chaplain says that they are "weak rather than wicked." I go back and look into the lad's setting to see how this was, and I find that he had no home. He lived in a tenement with a hundred other such, in darkness, physical and moral; and character does not grow any more than plants do in such an atmosphere. I look at him out of the home, and find that the street was his only playground. But the street is not a good playground. The play that goes on between two gutters partakes of their filth. "Play," said Froebel, "is the normal occupation of the child, through which he begins to perceive moral relations." He "learns by doing." What does he learn by doing what, where the only game he knows by intuition is "getting arrested"? Why, you know it. He learns to be the little tough he is, he learns hostility to law and order. We have no right to complain of gang-rule. We planned it ourselves. No home, no play! The two strongest props of character knocked out from under the boy! And still we wonder what ails him.

What is this curious fatality that makes an otherwise sane people, which put before the world the greatest bill of human rights of all time, permit the slum to grow up to mock the freedom we won, until our greatest city has come to be known as "the homeless city"? No home — no family, no manhood, no patriotism, said the Frenchman; and it is as true here as there. What is it that makes us say so glibly that the public school is the corner-stone of our liberties, and then let it become the soulless, stuffing-machine we see in some of our cities? Can we not see citizenship and manhood murdered in the process? Can you not see your problem loom up all over it? When I was in London, looking through its slums, some years ago, I was struck by this difference between theirs and ours: theirs was dead, hopeless; there was yeast in ours, and it was working up and out. Let us never surrender that, brethren. Let us mend the broken pieces patiently as we may, waiting for the dawn that is coming. But let there be no patient dealing with the forces that would shut it out. Let us oppose them with might and main, never forgetting that that is the chief work of charity and of correction. Let the props that make character be put back, or we shall labor in vain trying to repair it.

In our city for years the charity organizations have recognized this. They have led in the work for restoring the home. The president of the Charity Organization Society, Mr. Robert W. De Forest, whom you all know, is the president of our Tenement House Commission that has done such splendid work. The Outdoor Recreation League borrows much of its strength from the same source. We have grasped the fact that a man cannot live like a pig and be and vote like a man; that limiting the tenant's comprehension of what is meant by "all men being created equal," with an air-shaft two feet four inches wide, is imperilling the republic. We are beginning to see things in their true relations. We have yet to make clear to ourselves how much the "common" that is in every New England town has had to do with the native strength of that strong people,— the fact that the boy grew up knowing that he had rights that had belonged to him from the very beginning. In most of our great cities he has been thrust out, kept out by main strength, until he made your problem. We are beginning to see it; but we have got yet to get a firm grasp of the proposition that, to make a whole man, you must have a whole boy. For his manhood which we ask of him we must give him back his childhood.

Friends and neighbors, if you were here under the dome of the nation's capitol to resolve that that immortal declaration upon which our government rests was not for yesterday, is not for to-day, but for to-morrow as well; that the children who are that to-morrow are not excluded; that their right to play is as inalienable as ours to rule ourselves,— for it is their "pursuit of happiness," — I think you would find half of your problem solved for you. We should be making then a generation in need neither of charity nor of correction. Let charity begin with the child's home and play, and a little of it will go a long way.

Already we have taken long steps in that direction. We have upset the free-soup kettle. It never held food for free men. We have substituted for the old "coal chute" charity which my countryman, whose name you all know, Hans Christian Andersen, said bred either resentment in the one who received it or a "generation that seemed to be born under the sign of the wheelbarrow,"— had to be pushed along all the time,— for that we have substituted the passenger bridge which we call the "settlement," upon which men go over, not down, to their duty from the mansion to the tenement.

We have brought common sense into the partnership to keep it from becoming a fad, human hearts to keep it from becoming a mere laboratory for social inquiry. Preserve me from the term, "laboratory work." A human being in misery is not a bug to be stuck upon a pin for leisurely investigation and learned indexing. No, we are advancing all along the line; for we are fighting all along the line.

What if that is to be the way of it always? What if the fighting is never to cease? Who says it shall? I have here a letter I received a week ago from an unknown friend here in Washington. He was in discouragement. For a whole year he had been giving his life to a battle with poverty, but he saw no result. Could I tell him a way to tackle sin and misery, he would be glad to try it. "It is nineteen hundred years since our Saviour set His example of love and sacrifice before men for all time," I wrote back; "and this gruesome load lies there still for us to labor with. What makes you think you should succeed better in one brief year?" It may be we shall be always fighting, because that is the way for us to work out our salvation in His plan who knows it all. Why, then, just let us keep on, and be thankful that we are allowed to help Him. What greater work could any of us ask?

III.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON REPORTS FROM STATES.

Reports have been received from all of the states and territories, except Georgia, Indian Territory, Nevada, and Tennessee.

The committee has not asked the state corresponding secretaries for any statistics this year. We believe that it would be exceedingly desirable to secure each year reliable statistics of the work in the several states, and to print it in tabular form; but this would involve an amount of labor and expense which the committee has been unable to undertake.

CONFERENCES OF CHARITIES.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction produced a marked effect in the state of Kansas. The legislature of 1901 passed a comprehensive bill relating to charities and charitable and reformatory institutions, revising the whole system of management of institutions. Sections 35 and 36 of this bill read as follows: —

"A committee of said board of trustees of charities and corrections is hereby authorized to attend the annual national conference of charities and correction, and to tax up the actual necessary expenses to said trip as a part of the expenses of their office; provided that such expenses shall not exceed four hundred dollars, to be paid by the state treasurer out of funds not otherwise appropriated.

"The said board may subscribe for copies of the Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction not exceeding two hundred dollars in any one year, and may purchase books or periodicals for their libraries to cost not to exceed twenty dollars in

any one year, and may further expend not to exceed five hundred dollars for papers and reading matter for the institutions."

State conferences of charities have been organized in New York, California, Nebraska, Missouri, and Virginia during the past year.

STATE BOARDS OF CHARITIES.

The abolition of the state boards of charities and the substitution of state boards of control was proposed in Minnesota, Illinois, and Colorado. In Illinois the change was recommended by the State Board of Public Charities. In New York it was proposed to substitute for the State Board of Charities a board to consist of one salaried official and two state officers, *ex officio*, without remuneration. The proposed legislation was rejected in each state except Minnesota, which has established a State Board of Control similar to that of Iowa. The Nebraska legislature established an advisory State Board of Charities.

CHILDREN.

In 1899, Illinois enacted a law similar to the Massachusetts probation law, but more comprehensive. Its chief feature was the establishment of a court to deal with both dependent and delinquent children. The legislatures of 1901 enacted similar laws in Wisconsin, Missouri, and Kansas. Similar laws are pending in Pennsylvania, New York, and Connecticut.

THE INSANE.

Massachusetts, New York, Virginia, and Minnesota, are perfecting the state system of caring for the insane. Pennsylvania is developing county system similar to that of Wisconsin. Indiana, Kansas, Missouri, and Virginia passed laws simplifying methods of commitment.

PENOLOGY.

Several states are extending the parole system to inmates of state prisons. Louisiana has abolished the convict lease system, and Mississippi will probably do so.

CONSUMPTIVES.

State provision for consumptives has been made in Massachusetts, and is being vigorously pressed in Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and Minnesota.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The new charter of Baltimore is a notable departure in the management of municipal charities, and is likely to exercise a permanent influence upon the cities of the United States. The changes in administration of relief for the poor in Ohio and Indiana are worthy of the study of legislators. They have resulted in an immense pecuniary saving, and it is believed that the effect upon the beneficiaries is much less demoralizing than under the old system.

SUMMARY OF REPORTS BY SECTIONS.

It is the practice of the Committee on Reports from States to summarize the reports by geographical sections, in order to present a comprehensive survey of the year's progress.

The North Atlantic States.

State Conferences of Charities.— The New York State Conference of Charities and Correction held its first annual meeting in November, 1900. The conference promises to be a leading factor henceforward in the work of New York. The state conference does not supersede the New York Convention of County Superintendents of the Poor, but many persons belong to both organizations. New Hampshire and Pennsylvania are the only other North Atlantic states which have state conferences.

State Boards of Charities.— The powers of the Massachusetts board, with reference to dependent and neglected children, have been further enlarged. The new governor of New York recommended the abolishment of the State Board of Charities and the substitution of a board to consist of one salaried official and two state officers, *ex officio*, without remuneration. A bill was introduced, but met with the opposition of nearly all the friends of charitable work in the state. The bill was not reported from committee in either house.

Children. — The Maine Industrial School for Girls is now controlled and supported by the state. Public sentiment in Maine favors the placing-out system. The Massachusetts legislature has authorized the court to commit "dependent" as well as "neglected" children to the State Board of Charities, unless municipal authorities intervene. Massachusetts will probably pass a bill providing for the approval of charitable homes for children by the State Board of Charities, as a condition for their incorporation. The Massachusetts Farm Colony for Feeble-minded Boys past school age now contains about seventy boys, and is steadily growing. New Hampshire has provided for a state school for feeble-minded children between the ages of three and twenty-one years. The Connecticut legislature will probably forbid the commitment of boys under nine to the State School for Boys. A manual training system has been introduced in the Connecticut School for Boys at Meriden. A bill for the establishment of the probation system is before the Connecticut legislature. In addition to the foregoing, six additional bills relating to dependent children are before the Connecticut legislature, all of which will probably be rejected. The Rhode Island Nursery Association has entirely changed its method of work from the institutional plan to the plan of boarding children under three years of age in private families. The Public Education Association provides courses of lectures for parents of poor children in poor districts. The Pennsylvania legislature will probably pass a juvenile court law similar to that of Illinois, providing for probation officers, inspection of children's institutions, special court-rooms for children's cases, etc. The revised charter of New York City facilitates the placing of destitute children in families, and guards the health and safety of children placed in institutions. A children's court is established to hear cases of destitution, neglect, incorrigibility, begging, etc. The State Hospital for Crippled Children, established by the legislature of 1900, is located at Tarrytown. Buffalo has a special law providing a probation system for juvenile offenders.

The Insane.— In Massachusetts all insane persons now cared for by cities and towns, except Boston, will be controlled and supported by the state after Jan. 1, 1904. A colony for quiet chronic insane has been provided for. In Pennsylvania the county care system prevails in fifteen counties, and seems to have gained a strong hold on charitable people.

Penology.— In Maine there is a growing sentiment in favor of a separate prison for women, to be under the charge of women. In Massachusetts the commissioners of prisons have been given supervision over the work of probation officers of such courts as they may designate (presumably courts dealing with adult cases). The commissioners are authorized to confer with justices and probation officers for the improvement and perfection of the service. The indeterminate sentence system will probably be applied by the legislature to the state prison, with maximum and minimum limits. Bills are pending before the Connecticut legislature for state reformatories for men and women. The latter bill is likely to pass. A bill for executing criminals at the state penitentiary failed in the Pennsylvania legislature. The New York legislature enacted a probation law for all criminal courts in all cities of the state, but, strange to say, refused to apply it to children. A parole law was passed, applying to state prisoners.

Consumptives.— The Massachusetts State Sanatorium at Rutland, opened in 1898, has been placed under supervision of the State Board of Charities, and will be enlarged and further developed. The Connecticut legislature is considering a bill for a state hospital for pulmonary tuberculosis. The Hartford City Hospital is also raising funds for a department for consumptives. In New York much opposition has been encountered from local interest, against the location of the proposed hospital for consumptives. The legislature of 1901 made appropriation for building, but further opposition to the location is probable. In Pennsylvania the Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis is urging an appropriation of $50,000 for a sanatorium in the highlands of the state.

Miscellaneous.— The Connecticut legislature is considering a bill providing for district almshouses. Providence has an Improved Tenement House Corporation, which has already reformed one tenement house. The Tenement House Commission of New York of 1900 recommended important changes in building laws, which were adopted by the legislature, constituting a most important advance in tenement-house reform.

North Central States.

State Conferences of Charities.— Missouri and Kansas have established state conferences of charities and correction during the past year. The meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Topeka made a lasting impression upon the State of Kansas. The legislature of 1901 passed an act authorizing the State Board of Trustees of Charities and Corrections to send a committee to each meeting of the National Conference, at an expense not exceeding $400; also, to subscribe for copies of the Proceedings of the Conference, not exceeding $200 per year. Active and influential State Conferences of Charities and Correction exist in Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Minnesota, Iowa, and Nebraska. The Ohio Conference numbers 300 members, and rivals the National Conference. In Wisconsin the officers of the county insane asylum have formed an organization, to meet semi-annually.

State Boards of Charities.—The Nebraska legislature of 1901 established a State Board of Charities, similar in its scope to the boards of Ohio, Indiana, and Minnesota. The legislature of Minnesota abolished the State Board of Corrections and Charities, and established a State Board of Control similar to that of Iowa. It is a state board of trustees for the state correctional and charitable institution, and succeeds to the duties of the state board of corrections and charities in supervising county and municipal institutions, deporting non-resident dependants, etc. The State Board of Public Charities of Illinois recommended to the legislature its own abolition, and the establishment of a state board of control similar to that of Iowa. A bill was introduced, but was rejected by the legislature. In Wisconsin a woman will probably be placed on the State Board of Control of Charitable and Correctional Institutions, and the employment of women as factory inspectors will probably be authorized.

Children.— The Indiana legislature has provided for county boards of children's guardians throughout the state. Heretofore only four counties have had such boards. The Soldiers' Orphans' Home will receive children of deceased soldiers or sailors of the recent war. The School for Feeble-minded will hereafter receive idiotic, epileptic, and paralytic children under fifteen. Additional room will be provided. The supervision of dependent children by the State Board of Charities has been successful, and will be increased. The Michigan

legislature will probably increase the age limit of the State Public School to fourteen years. A juvenile court law will probably pass. The placing of children in homes by private organizations will be subject to the supervision of the State Board of Charities, and homes must be approved by the county agents. In Wisconsin, infants will be received in State Public School, but must be transferred to homes within sixty days. Provision for epileptics has been made at the State Home for Feeble-minded. Minnesota will at last separate the girls' training school (reformatory) from the boys' training school. The legislature made the abandonment or neglect of a family a felony. A law was passed to regulate the care of infants in places not the home of their parents. The probation law of 1899 was amended to include persons under twenty-one years of age. North Dakota and South Dakota have made provision for institutions for feeble-minded children. Nebraska has reduced the age limit in the State Industrial Schools from eighteen to sixteen years. There are six child-saving organizations in the state, with some overlapping. The Missouri legislature passed a bill for the probation system and a juvenile court for youthful offenders. The new feeble-minded and epileptic colony, not yet opened, has already nearly 300 applications. The buildings are well planned. The architect is a woman. St. Louis has established vacation playgrounds. The Kansas legislature passed "An Act to define the Condition of Child Dependency and Ill-treatment," placing all children's societies under the control of the State Board of Charities. The name of the State Reform School was changed to Industrial School. Superintendent T. J. Charlton, of the Indiana State Reformatory, has retired because of ill-health, after twenty-one years' service. He has long been a leader in his specialty. The Illinois legislature strengthened the Juvenile Court Law, gave increased authority to the State Board of Charities in supervising children's institutions, and did away with the necessity of criminal conviction for commitment to the Girls' Reformatory. A bill to make appropriations for buildings for the epileptic colony, authorized by the bill of 1889, failed; also, a bill to provide additional accommodations for small boys at the State Reformatory, which receives adults. A bill was, however, passed establishing a State Home for Delinquent Boys. A small appropriation was made, which will probably be supplemented by private contributions.

The Insane.— The Indiana legislature amended the commitment

act so that inquests shall be held by one justice of the peace and two physicians, instead of two justices of the peace and one physician. The Minnesota legislature has established a detention hospital in connection with the city and county hospitals at St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Duluth. The expense is borne by the state. The legislature of 1901 provided for trebling the size of the small asylums for the insane at Anoka and Hastings. These state asylums were modelled after the county asylums of Wisconsin. A new law provides that no insane person shall be kept in jail unless for exceptional reasons, by order of the Probate Court. Wisconsin has built two additional county asylums at Trempeauleau and Waupaca. The Iowa legislature of 1899 placed the county insane asylums under the supervision of the State Board of Control, which has taken steps to require much more efficient administration. The Nebraska hospitals for the insane have been discreditable. Much improvement is hoped through the new State Board of Charities. The new Kansas law allows a private examination by a commission of physicians. Kansas sheriffs prevented legislation to place travelling insane patients under the care of attendants. Missouri has a new hospital for insane under construction.

Penology.— The legislature of Indiana extended the parole law to all women serving a fixed term, and created the office of prison matron in counties having a population of 50,000, to have charge of women in jail, attend courts when women are tried, escort women and girls committed to the Industrial School or prison, and to escort insane women to and from the hospital. The prison population in Indiana has not increased in the past six years. The Michigan legislature is considering a bill to adopt the Bertillon system of identification, making the information obtained accessible to judges. In Wisconsin, James E. Heg has resigned the superintendency of the State Reformatory to become superintendent of the new State Reformatory in New Jersey. The Minnesota legislature passed a law allowing life prisoners who have served thirty-five years, less good time, to be paroled. This law is intended primarily for the benefit of the Younger Brothers. The Women's Reformatory in Iowa has not been opened because the age limit fixed in the law makes it impractical. The Kansas legislature passed a parole law for the state penitentiary. This act practically legalizes the system of conditional pardons previously put in operation by Governor Stanley. In

Missouri the Bertillon system for identifying criminals has been introduced in the leading cities and in the penitentiary. The women prisoners in the state penitentiary will be removed from their desolate cramped building to a new and suitable one, costing $50,000.

Consumptives.— The Minnesota legislature established a commission to report concerning the advisability of a state sanatorium for consumptives.

Miscellaneous.— The Indiana poor relief laws have been recodified. By wise legislation, official outdoor relief has decreased from $630,000 in 1895 to $210,000 in 1900, a reduction of 66 per cent. The St. Louis Provident Association has established a Legal Aid Department to protect oppressed borrowers and render other legal assistance to the poor. It has also established a Provident Penny Savings Bank. The Kansas legislature passed a comprehensive law to govern the charitable and correctional institutions of the state, containing many valuable features. A spirit of reform exists in the Kansas institutions.

Southern States.

State Conferences of Charities.— Virginia has organized a state conference, and a conference will probably be organized in Tennessee.

State Boards of Charities.— Congress passed a bill to create a board of charities for the District of Columbia, to supersede the superintendent of charities. The Maryland Board of State Aid and Charities, created by the legislature of 1900, has commenced its work. Florida has a Board of State Institutions, composed of the governor with the cabinet officers. This board has a general supervision of institutions.

Children.— Congress passed a bill providing for the compulsory support of children by their parents in the District of Columbia. Under the new Baltimore charter the city has absolute supervision over dependent juvenile wards. Efficient co-operation between the city and the private organizations has been established. A Children's Home Society has been organized in Virginia. In Kentucky the Children's Free Hospital Circle extends aid to sick and crippled children in the inaccessible mountain districts. Alabama has appropriated $15,000 for the maintenance of the Boys' Reformatory incorporated two years ago. Negro children are still sent to the penitentiary with adult prisoners. New Orleans is adding new free

kindergartens. The Texas legislature appropriated $15,000 to care for feeble-minded children in the epileptic colony. The governor wisely vetoed the bill. A strong sentiment exists in Mississippi in favor of a juvenile reformatory.

The New Orleans Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children will undertake the work of placing children in families, instead of keeping them herded in institutions. The North Carolina legislature authorized clerks of the county superior courts to indenture as apprentices vagrant and destitute children. The Oklahoma legislature passed a bill providing for the erection of a reformatory for boys, another for girls, and an institution for the deaf and dumb, which was vetoed by the governor. A Children's Home Society has been organized.

The Insane.— Maryland has done away with the requirement that lunacy must be ascertained by a jury. Acute cases are sent to the Maryland Hospital, near Catonsville, chronic cases to the Springfield Hospital, near Sykesville. Virginia opened the first hospital for "idiots, lunatics, and persons of insane and disordered minds," in 1873. The state now maintains four hospitals for the insane, and has none in jails, poorhouses, or private institutions. A new law provides for commissions to determine the question of insanity, composed of a judge or magistrate and two practising physicians. Alabama is to open a hospital for negro insane in the old fort at Mt. Vernon. Hundreds of insane are kept in county jails, poorhouses, and private homes, under pitiable conditions.

Penology.— The Virginia penitentiary makes an annual profit to the state of $50,000. The average cell space per man is about 175 cubic feet. The legislature has appointed a commission to examine the prison and recommend reformatory methods. The governor has instituted a system of conditional pardons which works well. The West Virginia penitentiary is a source of pecuniary profit to the state, but reformatory methods are reported to prevail. The convicts of Florida are leased to one firm at $21,000 per year. The present legislature will probably legislate for more direct control of convicts and more humane methods. One Alabama prison contains 50 inmates convicted of stealing a ride on a train, another contains 70 convicted of carrying pocket pistols. The Louisiana convict lease expired Jan. 1, 1901. The convicts are now employed under state care. Texas has a special farm with favorable sanitary conditions for tuberculous con-

victs, which is self-sustaining. Mississippi has purchased a tract of 12,000 acres for a state prison farm, with the expectation of abolishing the lease system. New Orleans will soon have a jail with modern improvements, steam heat, plenty of pure air and water, to supersede an "old, dilapidated, unsanitary shanty, which lodges from two to three hundred prisoners, as well as the insane."

Miscellaneous.— Baltimore is making great improvements in the care of public dependants, under the supervision provided for by the new charter. In the past the city has made contracts with private institutions for the care of dependants. The appropriations for reformatories for children has lately been cut down. Virginia provides for 270 needy Confederate veterans at an annual expense of $36,000. The state disbursed last year $125,000 to disabled veterans, widows and orphans outside the home. The West Virginia State Home for Incurables is being enlarged. Mississippi will probably provide a home for disabled and indigent confederate soldiers.

Western States.

State Conferences of Charities.— California held its first State Conference of Charities and Correction at Oakland, in January, 1901. Colorado has maintained a conference for several years. No other state conferences exist in the western states.

State Boards of Charities.— The powers of the Colorado State Board have been enlarged to include supervision of private charitable societies and organizations receiving support from contributions of the general public. The board is authorized to issue licenses without fee, or to refuse the same, to such societies. A bill for a state board of charities was strongly pressed in California, but was finally defeated. The state of Washington has established a state board of control, with three members, each receiving $2,000 per year and expenses, to devote their entire time to the management of the two insane hospitals, penitentiary, reform school, the soldiers' home and the school for defective youth.

Children.— In Colorado, societies and institutions for dependent children which solicit public support have been placed under the supervision of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, and must procure a license (without fee) from said board. The legislature has authorized any public or private institution, in or out of the state, to

care for feeble-minded children at county expense, pending the establishment of a state institution for feeble-minded children. The recent legislature provided for parental schools in cities of 25,000, to be conducted by the board of education, the children to be subject to parole. The Colorado Humane Society was made a state institution, with an annual appropriation of $6,000. In Utah a Home Finding Society has been organized. The state maintains a Reform School and a School for the Deaf and Blind. The legislatures of New Mexico and Arizona each passed a bill for the establishment of a reform school for boys. The Oregon legislature passed an act granting $50 per annum for each orphan child under fourteen, cared for in an institution containing more than five children, unless otherwise paid for. The Boys' and Girls' Aid Society receives $6,000 from the state, with additional allowance from counties for delinquent children.

The Insane.— Idaho cared for 258 different insane people at a cost of $70,000. The Montana insane are kept at Warm Springs. The directors receive sixty-five cents per day for each patient.

Penology.— The Colorado legislature passed a bill reviving the death penalty, which, however, had not been signed by the governor when the report was made.

Miscellaneous.— The county commissioners at Portland, Ore., abolished outdoor relief in September, 1901, referring all applicants to the city board of charities, a voluntary organization. Wyoming has secured the Big Horn Hot Springs near Thermopolis to be forever set aside for the treatment and care of diseases and for sanitary and charitable purposes. The legislature has authorized a special tax levy to meet the appropriation.

REPORTS OF STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARIES.

ALABAMA.

BY JULIA S. TUTWILER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The biennial session of the legislature of Alabama from November, 1900, to March, 1901, passed one measure of importance to the association, and failed to pass another perhaps still more important.

1. Two years ago the legislature, at the solicitation of Mrs. R. D. Johnston, wife of Gen. R. D. Johnston, incorporated a boys' reformatory by the name of the Industrial School for White Boys of Alabama. They also gave $5,000 toward the necessary buildings. By unceasing effort, Mrs. Johnston collected additional funds enough to purchase a beautiful site, a farm of seventy acres, and to build a large and commodious school-farm house. She was also fortunate enough to find a manager experienced in such work and full of faith in its success. Thus the work was begun two years ago; but no income had been provided, and applications were crowding it from every quarter. Humane judges were anxious to send youthful criminals to some other place than those universities for the training of expert criminals which the state maintains at the mines. By the parole law of the state legislature, the governor can release youthful criminals. At his discretion he may make such a release conditional on the criminal's spending a certain length of time at the reformatory. Mrs. Johnston, by special request, addressed the last legislature in regard to the needs of the reformatory, and obtained a grant of $15,000 for two years. There is no doubt that the next legislature will renew this grant or perhaps make it larger.

2. The important measure defeated in the legislature, after a most earnest fight, was entitled the "Compulsory Education Act." Its name worked much against the bill. The people of Alabama dislike to do anything on *compulsion*. The real purpose of the bill was to regulate child labor in our factories before it reaches the enormous proportions which made it so difficult for England to check its horrors. A beautiful, intelligent, and eloquent English woman was

employed by the labor organization of the United States to come to Alabama and frame and champion the bill. Her advocacy was aided by the indorsement of the educational associations of the state, by various organizations of women, by churches, and by many private persons of thoughtful intelligence. But the cotton-mill owners of the state were against it, and engaged talent of various kinds — editors, lawyers, and even some ministers — on their side. They represented, and truly, that they had provided for their operatives houses far better than the country cracker usually inhabits. Some of the factory owners have also provided free schools, public libraries, halls for recreation, and other civilizing facilities. They say the fact that he can get pay for the work of every member of the family is a great inducement to the cracker to come to the factory town. The friends of the bill fail to see the benevolence of establishing schools for a few children while others are working all day, and some all night. The bill was lost, although eloquent women on the floor of the house urged its claims by appeals to every feeling of humanity and patriotism.

3. The overcrowded condition of the State Insane Hospital at Tuscaloosa has long been a subject of distress to thoughtful citizens. They have grieved still more over the fact that hundreds of the insane have not been able to gain admittance at all, and are kept in county jails, poorhouses, and private homes, under the most pitiable conditions. Much has been done to relieve this state of things by an act which gave the old fort at Mt. Vernon to the insane hospital. Geronimo and his men were formerly kept here, and there are ample grounds and numerous buildings. These are handsome and substantial, and there are eighteen hundred acres of land attached. The negro insane will be removed to this place.

4. Our poorhouses are not a credit to the state, to state their condition as mildly as possible. Dr. James Searcy, superintendent of the insane whites, has been urging upon the governor the propriety of appointing a commission of scientific experts to visit the jails and poorhouses of the state and report upon them. Dr. Searcy says that such a report will horrify every humane citizen in the state. The county officials do not seem to understand that the poorhouse is the county hospital, in most cases the only one it has, and should be governed by the same hygienic rules which control other hospitals.

5. Our jails need very much stockaded yards, in which prisoners could get exercise and fresh air. A workingman, accustomed to a life in the open air, suffers greatly in health when confined, often for months, in enforced idleness. A board of health sufficiently salaried to allow its members to spend their whole time in the inspection of the state and county institutions would be a great advantage to the state. But short-sighted economy prevents its establishment.

6. And now I must repeat the lament with which I have so often wearied your ears. Negro children are still sent to the same places with adult criminals, and no efforts are made for their reformation. They go to prison bad boys: they leave it "half devil and half beast." Lately at the state prison I found thirty boys shut up in a room together for a whole Sunday, with not even an adult "trusty" in charge of them. Many of their offences were of so slight a nature that this forced contact with murderers and burglars seems a greater crime than any that the boys have committed. In one prison are fifty inmates for stealing a ride on a train, in another are seventy for carrying pocket pistols. These offences should be punished, but not by educating the offender in higher grades of crime until he is an accomplished graduate. How can we hope that brutal assaults will cease while we are thus making brutes of human beings? It is impossible to obtain a legislative grant for these children as long as the educational fund is so limited. But I believe it would be possible to put these boys on a farm and make them earn their own living if some Christian or humanitarian organization would provide the necessary instruction and supervision. There will be no trouble about getting land for the experiment. A hundred-acre-farm is ready at any time. The boys themselves should build their houses, just such log houses as they have been accustomed to live in. If the founder of the George Junior Republic or some man similarly-minded, would only take hold of the work, I believe it could be made a success. I have corresponded with the Salvation Army on the subject, but hitherto without avail.

ALASKA.

BY REV. SHELDON JACKSON, D.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no change in Alaska matters except the governor has made a contract with the asylums on the Pacific Coast for the care of the Alaska insane. Last summer and fall the grip, pneumonia, and measles caused the death, in many places, of one-third to one-half of the Eskimo people in the region of Behring Sea and the parts adjacent. This left a large number of orphan children, many of whom have been taken in, and are being cared for by the missionaries residing in that section of Alaska.

The prisons in Alaska are United States prisons, and the methods now pursued are contrary to all that have been proved best in prison discipline. The law permits the attorney-general to prescribe rules and regulations for the working of the prisoners, but up to this writing none have been made.

ARIZONA.

BY HON. C. H. AKERS, TERRITORIAL SECRETARY.

The only institution of the kind you mention in Arizona is the Territorial Reform School established by the legislature just adjourned. The act passed by said legislature provided for a tax to raise money to establish a reform school at Benson, but it will probably be several years before it is in actual operation.

ARKANSAS.

BY GEORGE THORNBURG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no important charitable or correctional legislation during the year. The Independent Order of Odd Fellows have established a home at Batesville, Ark.

Destitutes.—In poorhouses, 300; destitute children, 500; sick and injured, 300.

Defectives.— Blind, 200; deaf, 250; feeble-minded, 50.

The Insane.— In state institutions, 600; in county asylums, 70; in poorhouses, 25.

The Missionary Baptists have a state children's home at Monticello, Ark., with some 25 or 30 inmates. The Methodist Episcopal Church, South, has incorporated an orphans' home, to be located at Little Rock. The state has an ex-Confederate Soldiers' Home, with 100 inmates, located at Little Rock.

CALIFORNIA.

BY KATHARINE C. FELTON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Lack of interest among intelligent people has stood in the way of improvement in our charitable institutions. The Prison Commission, for example, has repeatedly appealed to the legislature to provide more ample prison accommodations, so that each convict might be given a separate cell; but the appeal has been unheeded under a false notion of economy, and the commission has been powerless because it lacked the backing of an effective enlightened public sentiment.

It was with the object in view of creating a greater interest in the charities of the State that the Associated Charities of Oakland took the initiative in organizing a state conference of charities and corrections, which held its first session in Oakland, January 4 to 7, inclusive.

As Californians are, as a rule, debarred by distance from attending the National Conference, the policy was inaugurated of sending to the East for some eminent specialist. The conference was fortunate in securing at this, its first session, Mr. H. H. Hart, of Chicago.

Many of the charitable interests of the state were represented at the conference; but the superintendents of state institutions came rather to lecture to local audiences than to confer with other charity workers, and, as a rule, did not stay for any session except that at which the work of their own institution was presented. On the whole, however, the conference was a success, in that it was a step in the right direction. Through its efforts a bill to establish a state board of charities was introduced into the legislature, but failed to pass. Its failure was due to three causes: (1) the opposition of the governor, who desired a state board of control; (2) the hostility of

some of the subsidized institutions, which feared that the establishment of such a board would lead to the reduction of state aid to private institutions; (3) the inability of the conference to send some one to attend the sessions of the legislature in the interest of the bill.

No very important laws affecting charitable interests were enacted by the last legislature.

The following bills of minor importance were passed: (1) to create the position of county matron in counties of the first, second, and third class; (2) to create the position of city matron in cities of the first, second, third, and third and a half classes; (3) to provide for the return to the county where residence has been acquired of those who become dependent within three months of their coming into another county; (4) a bill to prohibit minors under fourteen years from working in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment was amended, so that the age limit was reduced to twelve years; (5) a bill to amend the present compulsory school law by giving counties and cities the power to establish truant schools and employ truant officers was defeated.

There was no legislation of importance concerning the state institutions, and no radical change has been made in their management.

The judiciary committee reported in favor of the establishment of a state board of control, but advised that the matter be postponed until the next session of the legislature.

In the absence of any effective public opinion the danger seems great that such a board would govern the institutions in the interest of partisan politics.

During the last year the women's clubs have been taking a more active interest in civics, and the Associated Charities of San Francisco is now widening the scope of its work. An effort is also being made to induce the children's institutions around the Bay to cooperate in the employment of a trained agent, whose duty it shall be to visit regularly the children placed in family homes throughout the state.

COLORADO.

BY C. L. STONAKER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The State Board of Charities and Correction, having advisory powers only over all charities and correctional institutions supported wholly or in part by state, county, or municipal funds, has existed for ten years, during which time it has steadily interested the general public in the betterment of all such institutions and has been of material value in creating and maintaining a healthy public sentiment. During the ten years it has gradually but surely divorced political influence from the local management of all such institutions, and in many ways has brought modern ideas to bear upon the many questions relating to the care of dependants who are inmates of the several institutions.

The board recommended to the biennial session of 1901 of the General Assembly two measures which were accepted without question and have become laws. One relates to private charitable societies and organizations receiving support from contributions of the general public. The State Board of Charities and Correction is authorized to issue licenses without fee to all societies which report annually to the board, giving data upon blanks prepared by the board. Licenses can be refused to any society or organization. The board is further empowered under the law to receive complaints regarding private charities; and it can make investigations, sending for persons and papers and administering oaths. Such investigations shall be public, and due notice of all complaints must be sent to the society or corporation or individual against whom complaint is lodged. There are no penalties attached to this law other than the penalty which may ensue from opposition to requests of the board. In brief, it is the purpose of this law to give proper publicity, so that the generous public supporting by private contributions any such society may know the character and standing of the society and whether it receives the sanction and support of the State Board.

The other measure passed by the General Assembly provides for the commitment of feeble-minded children to any private or state institution in this or other states by the recommendation of the county court to the board of county commissioners, the county defraying the expense of such commitment, care, and custody out of

the poor fund. The purpose of this measure is to secure needed relief to poor families having the burden of the care of a feeble-minded person until the state shall be in a financial position to establish a state home for feeble-minded. This is a temporary expedient, and is not permanent in any other feature except, possibly, the county support of such feeble-minded persons. It may be that the State Board of Charities and Correction will recommend county support when a state institution shall be created.

The recent legislature passed a law providing for parental or truancy schools in cities having a population of twenty-five thousand or more. These schools are to be created and conducted by the board of education as a part of the public school system. Commitments are for an indeterminate term for truancy and insubordination, and children committed to such school are subject to parole by action of the board of education or the managers of such parental schools.

The legislature made the Colorado Humane Society, heretofore a private organization, a state bureau for the protection of children and dumb animals. The purpose of this bureau is to enforce the laws relating to cruelty to children and abuses of dumb animals; and an appropriation of $6,000 for the biennial period was granted to make the work effective. This society has local agents in all communities of the state, having the authority to cause arrests and prosecute offenders in the courts. In connection with the care of dependent and neglected children, who are supported after commitment by the state in a state home until they are placed out in private homes, this newly created state bureau renders valuable aid in bringing the attention of county officials to deserving cases.

Four years ago the death penalty was abolished in this state, and, because murders continued without any material variation, a strong sentiment has been arrayed, seeking to restore the death penalty, which resulted in the introduction of several bills; and, after a spirited contest in the legislature, a bill was passed, the main provisions of which are that the jury in murder trials may, upon a verdict of guilty, name the penalty to be life imprisonment or death. Prisoners convicted who are under the age of eighteen years are not subject to the death penalty. Cases wherein circumstantial evidence results in conviction are not subject to the death penalty. At this writing it is not known whether the governor will sign the bill.

There is a growing, healthy public sentiment relative to the different features of public charitable and correctional work, including the construction and management of jails and the establishment of county hospitals in lieu of almshouses.

The indeterminate sentence and parole law enacted two years ago has been administered very satisfactorily, the parole of convicts from the prison being carefully guarded against abuses by means of efficient rules adopted by the governor.

The women's clubs of the state, and the State Federation of Women's Clubs, continue to do excellent work in creating a healthy public sentiment and in the advocacy of measures looking to social betterment.

CONNECTICUT.

BY CHARLES P. KELLOGG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

In legislation enacted or attempted during the current meeting of the Connecticut legislature in the fields of charities and correction the following matters may be mentioned: —

A bill providing for the adoption of the indeterminate sentence for commitments to the state prison was handed down from the legislature of 1899, and has been heard before the legislative committee. It is probable that the measure will be favorably reported with maximum and minimum limits, however, for different classes of offences.

A bill is under consideration for the probation of persons convicted of minor offences and for the appointment of probation officers on lines similar to the system in Massachusetts. No report has yet been made on this matter.

A plan is under consideration to re-establish whipping as a penalty for certain offences, such as assaults, wife-beating, etc., and for the punishment of juvenile offenders under sixteen years of age. It is doubtful what report will be made on this measure.

Bills have been presented to provide for a state reformatory for men and women. The bill providing for the Women's Reformatory may receive favorable consideration, but it is doubtful if a large institution will be recommended at this time.

Further measures in regard to the criminal classes include the following: —

A bill that life prisoners may be paroled, after serving twenty years, was rejected.

A bill that capital punishment be by means of electrocution, and not by hanging, was rejected.

A bill that minors convicted of murder in the first degree should not be punished by death, but by imprisonment for life, was rejected.

A bill that persons convicted of jail offences may be paroled and placed under the supervision of the town selectmen has been introduced, but it is doubtful if it will receive favorable consideration.

A bill providing for the employment of persons convicted of jail offences on the public highways has been introduced, but no report has yet been made.

A bill was introduced providing that the wife, or any person dependent upon a prisoner committed to jail, should receive fifty cents per day of his wages. It is not likely that this bill will be favorably considered in its present form, as many of the prisoners in jails do not earn fifty cents a day.

A bill was introduced providing that no boy under nine years of age should be committed to the State School for Boys except upon conviction of a felony. It is hoped that this measure will be favorably reported, as there are a number of small boys seven and eight years of age committed to the school for trifling offences.

In regard to the defective classes: —

A bill was introduced to provide for the establishment of a state hospital for pulmonary tuberculosis. The City Hospital of Hartford is also raising funds to establish a separate institution for this purpose; and it is probable that one, if not both, of these establishments will materialize.

In regard to the dependent classes an effort has been made to transfer the cost of support of dependent and neglected children in the county temporary homes from the state, where it now rests, to the towns from which the children are committed. This measure will probably be rejected.

A bill has been introduced providing for the commitment of dependent and neglected children by the courts to any suitable person or institution for such time as the court may determine, thus giving a fixed sentence instead of guardianship up till eighteen years, as obtains at present. This measure is not likely to receive favorable report.

An effort has been made to provide for the commitment of children to a certain Roman Catholic asylum in New Haven upon the same basis as commitments to county temporary homes, the state paying all the bills. It is not probable that this attempted favoritism to a sectarian institution will be carried.

A bill has been introduced to permit the courts to discharge at any time a child who has been committed to the county temporary home. At present the courts have this power only when application therefor is made within one year after the commitment. After that time this power rests with the board of management; and it is hoped that no change will be made in the present system, which works well.

A bill has been introduced which, in effect, provides that towns may board their dependent poor outside of the town to which they belong. The present law requires that paupers be boarded in the home town. It is to be hoped that something may be accomplished along this line, so that a number of small towns, of which each one alone cannot support a suitable almshouse, may combine in the establishment of district almshouses.

A bill has been introduced providing that selectmen, at the annual town meeting, shall disclose the name of each person to whom money has been paid and the amount thereof. It is not likely that this will be favorably reported, although such custom now exists in a number of the towns.

The only new charitable institution established within the past year has been a public hospital in the town of Winchester, called the Litchfield County Hospital of Winchester. It is a complete establishment with all modern appliances and will accommodate about forty patients.

New buildings have been added to the state prison, providing a congregate dining-room, new cell block, and new department for women.

At the Hospital for the Insane at Middletown the large congregate dining-room is approaching completion, and, when finished, will have a seating capacity for 1,500 persons.

At the School for Boys at Meriden a start has at last been made in manual training, and three classes of twenty boys each are receiving instruction in a form of sloyd work under an experienced teacher.

At the School for Feeble-minded at Lakeville a new building has been erected to provide school-rooms, assembly hall, and quarters for teachers.

DELAWARE.

BY MRS. EMALEA P. WARNER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The following important measures were passed at this last session of the legislature: —

Loan of $75,000 for Newcastle County Workhouse, which is now about complete and a model institution. Appropriations: to Delaware Hospital for Insane, $124,000 biennially; Girls' Industrial School, $3,000 annually; Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, $900 annually; to support deaf, dumb, blind, or imbecile children in other state institutions, $7,500; for soldiers' burial, $625; for improving colored schools, $6,000; for State College for Colored Students, $6,000; for Delaware College new building, $25,000.

Loan bills authorizing Wilmington High School to borrow $150,000; Wilmington Park Commission, $80,000; also bill providing that levy courts of each county shall pay respectively $100 annually to the Ferris Industrial School for each ward committed there; the Audubon Society bill for the protection of birds, etc.; a new and more just method of apportioning school funds; and a State Library Law, the last-named having been secured through the efforts of the Delaware State Federation of Women's Clubs.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BY HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

During the past year Congress has enacted more important legislation affecting the charities of the District of Columbia than has been the case for many years before. The bill to create a Board of Charities was passed; and the president appointed July 1, 1900, as members of the board, five of our very best citizens; the members of the board to serve without compensation. The board has chosen as its secretary Mr. George S. Wilson, who for over five years had been the general secretary of the Associated Charities. The board

is given general supervision of all charities in the District "supported in whole or in part by appropriations of Congress." It is required to report annually to Congress, and to prepare the estimates of future appropriations for charitable purposes. As a result of the board's first report to Congress, several important items of legislation have been secured.

An appropriation of $100,000 was carried in the bill approved June 6, 1900, for the purchase of a site for a municipal hospital; and the commissioners of the District of Columbia have purchased a site of thirty-three acres, while Congress at its last session appropriated $5,000 with which to prepare plans for hospital buildings.

$25,000 was appropriated for the purchase of a site for a new almshouse, which will provide for the separation of the almshouse from the workhouse, while $150,000 is now available for the erection of a new workhouse for males. The appropriation bill provided, also, for the making of contracts by the Board of Charities for the care of patients with three hospitals, which had heretofore received lump sum appropriations. A bill was passed providing for the compulsory support of children by their parents, and prohibiting the sending of children under seventeen years of age — charged with or convicted of minor offences — to the workhouse or jail, and providing for the commitment of such offenders to the Board of Children's Guardians on probation.

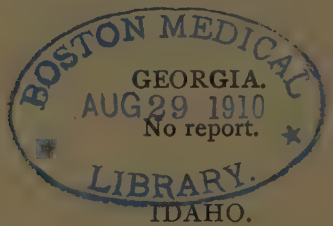
In the field of private charity Mr. Charles F. Weller, of Chicago, has been secured as general secretary of the Associated Charities. A new organization known as the Instructive Visiting Nurses' Association is doing important work in providing proper attention by trained nurses for the very poor who are sick in their homes.

FLORIDA.

BY REV. JOHN A. HUGHES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There is no board of charities in the state of Florida. The Commissioners of the State Board on State Institutions has a general supervision of any institutions. This board is composed of the cabinet officers, the governor acting as chairman. There is a State Asylum for the Insane at Chattahoochee, an Institute for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind at St. Augustine, and about a year ago there was

established at Mariana a Juvenile Reformatory School. There are several private charitable institutions in the state,— the Daniel Memorial Orphanage at Jacksonville, the Schumacher Society, in the same city, for the protection of children. A few of the counties of the state have poor farms. The one question relating to the general subject of correction is that of convicts. These have been leased out to one firm for the sum of $21,000. This year the legislature will probably pass a bill whereby the state will have more direct control and oversight of the convicts, and also get a larger share of the profits arising from convict labor. There is a widespread interest in securing better treatment for the convicts and holding the lessees to more strict account.


BOSTON MEDICAL
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LIBRARY.

GEORGIA.

No report.

IDAHO.

BY REV. JONATHAN EDWARDS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no marked progress in organized charities during recent years, and no special charitable and correctional legislation. Liberal appropriations have been made by the legislatures for the maintenance of the three state institutions.

Penitentiary.— According to the last printed report, for the year ending Nov. 30, 1900, the expenditures for general expenses were $64,000; for buildings and improvements, $26,000; estimated value of property, $225,000; number of state prisoners, 146; number of United States prisoners, 10; total, 156.

Insane Asylum.— The report for 1900 has the amount for current expenses, $69,583; on improvements, $5,000; total number treated, 258; number discharged, 43. A two-story brick ward, 100 × 40, was completed, giving room for 50 patients. The other improvements are a laundry building, stalls for horses, and brick granaries.

Soldiers' Home.— State appropriation, $5,000; national government, $6,870. The home was consumed by fire last year, and the infantry quarters of Boisé barracks have been occupied. A hospital was erected, 40 × 40. Total number on roll, 95.

The North-western Home Finding Society, with headquarters at Spokane, Wash., makes Northern Idaho a part of its field of operations. Several local circles have been organized, at Moscow, Wallace, and Wardner.

The Florence Crittenden Rescue Home of Spokane, Wash., has a Purity Circle at Wardner. Women's clubs have been organized in the larger towns and cities, some of which — especially the New Century Club at Wardner — have a philanthropic feature.

The state officers of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union have been active in work of reform and in establishing public libraries.

ILLINOIS.

BY JOHN T. PETERS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

During the session of the Forty-second General Assembly, just closed, there was but very little legislation with regard to the state charitable institutions and the treatment and control of the dependent and neglected classes. The only enactment of any importance was the creation of the Illinois State Home for Delinquent Boys, which will take effect July 1, 1901. Under the act "to regulate the treatment and control of dependent, neglected, and delinquent children," approved April 24, 1899, in force July 1, 1899, there is no suitable place to which delinquent boys, within the meaning of this act, may be committed. The Home for Delinquent Boys, when established and fully equipped, will cure this defect in the original law.

The act in question calls for the appointment by the governor of three commissioners to select a site, which by the terms of the act, must be donated for this purpose, and shall consist of not less than three hundred and twenty acres of land. When the site is selected, the governor is required to appoint seven trustees to manage the home, which will be under the general supervision of the State Board of Charities. The bill as originally introduced called for an appropriation of $75,000 for the necessary buildings and equipment. This amount, however, was reduced to $25,000 for buildings, $5,000 for furniture and the necessary tools, etc., and $5,000 for maintenance until the next session of the General Assembly.

It is with great regret that I report the failure of the bill for the establishment of the Illinois State Colony for Epileptics to pass the

legislature. The legislature of 1899 enacted a law empowering the State Commissioners of Public Charities to select a site for this purpose, obtain an option thereon, and report the draft of a bill for the establishment and control of such colony to the General Assembly. Acting upon this order and authority, the State Commissioners of Public Charities selected a site for the colony in Jersey County on the banks of the Mississippi River, which, in their opinion, fully met all the requirements of such a colony. The site selected contains 1,600 acres of land especially adapted for the purposes of an epileptic colony. A bill was prepared and introduced in the legislature; but it failed of passage, owing to the lateness of the day on which favorable action on it could be secured by the committee to which it was referred for consideration. It finally received favorable action by the committee, but got no further in the House of Representatives than the order of second reading.

A bill for the establishment of a State Board of Control, to consist of three members, and to supersede the present Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities and the boards of trustees of the several state charitable institutions, including therein strong provisions for the exercise of the merit system in all of our state charitable institutions, was also introduced in the legislature; but it, too, failed to pass. It received a favorable recommendation by the committee, but was lost in the closing days of the General Assembly.

During the last year there have been no changes in the policy of the management of the state charitable institutions, and I have nothing to report upon this subject. The legislature passed a bill making kidnapping a penitentiary offence, and another exempting kidnappers from the provisions of the parole law. Bequests for charitable, educational, or religious purposes were exempted from the inheritance tax. The abandonment of wife or children or refusal to provide for one's family was made a misdemeanor.

In the summer and fall of 1900 the State Board of Charities made a careful and critical inspection of every jail and almshouse in the state, noting particularly their sanitary condition and taking a census of the prisoners and inmates confined therein. The following summary, showing the classification of the prisoners and inmates, cost of feeding same for the year, etc., may be of interest to the Conference: —

The number of prisoners actually present in the county prisons

of the 102 counties of the state at the various dates of inspection was 1,110. Of this number 797 were awaiting trial, 272 were serving jail sentences, 28 were awaiting removal to higher prisons, 3 were awaiting execution, 2 were confined for debt, 2 were insane, 6 were city prisoners, and 28 were children under sixteen years of age, — 24 boys and 4 girls.

The movement of population shows that the number of prisoners present Jan. 1, 1899, was 1,338; admitted during the year, 14,267; discharged during the same period, 14,234; died during the same period, 14; remaining Jan. 1, 1900, 1,357. The number of insane in jail during the year was 117.

The cost of feeding prisoners for the year was $144,038.12; other expenses, $45,034.57; repairs, improvements, etc., $52,148.95; total for the year, $241,221.64.

At the various dates of inspection the total number of pauper inmates in the various county almshouses of the state was 8,989. Of this number, 3,100 were insane, 397 idiotic, 38 deaf-mutes, 113 blind, 335 epileptic, 207 children under sixteen years of age, and 4,799 not classified, the majority of whom were old and decrepit.

The movement of population of the almshouses shows that the number of inmates present Jan. 1, 1899, was 7,916; admitted during the year, 28,223; discharged during the same period, 25,600; died, 2,499; remaining Jan. 1, 1900, 8,040.

The total pauper expense for one year was $1,650,268.62, classified as follows: maintenance at almshouses, $744,653.91; salaries of superintendents, $57,847.50; salaries of matrons, $3,210; salaries of county physicians, $27,212; buildings, improvements, etc., $56,899.96; outdoor relief, $760,445.25.

The indications now are that the State Hospital for the Incurable Insane at Peoria will be completed and ready for the reception of inmates within the next few months. This institution will greatly relieve the overcrowded and congested condition of the other state hospitals for the insane, and also the county almshouses of the state, in the latter of which it is impossible, with the limited means at the command of the authorities, to properly provide for the unfortunate insane.

INDIANA.

BY AMOS W. BUTLER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Some important amendments to old laws and a few additional measures were enacted by the legislature which adjourned in March, 1901. The law of 1897, prohibiting the retention of children between the ages of three and seventeen years in county poor asylums longer than ten days, was amended by changing the limit to sixty days. A new law for the creation of County Boards of Children's Guardians was passed, and its provisions extended to all the counties of the state. The law heretofore in force applied to but four counties. Under one provision of the new statute, children are allowed to remain with their parents, except in emergencies, until after the court decides whether they shall be committed to the custody of the Board of Guardians. By an amendment to the law establishing the Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home the benefits of that institution are extended to children of deceased soldiers or sailors of the United States in the war with Spain or in the Philippine Islands. Appropriations amounting to $110,000, for the purpose of erecting new buildings at the School for Feeble-minded Youth, will enable the management to accept many outstanding applications, and also to carry out an important new law which provides for the admission to this institution of feeble-minded women from sixteen to forty-five years of age. The law governing this school was amended to provide for the admission of idiotic, epileptic, and paralytic children under the age of sixteen, under the same regulations that feeble-minded children are now admitted.

The legislature of 1899 extended the benefits of the parole law to women thereafter committed to the woman's prison; and in 1901 an amendment passed, including all women who may now be serving a fixed term of imprisonment. Another measure creates the office of prison matron in counties containing a population of 50,000 or over. This officer is to have charge of the female department of the jail, is to be in attendance in all courts when women are tried, and is to accompany girls and women committed to the Industrial School for Girls and Woman's Prison and those who are sent to or returned from any state hospital for the insane. An act passed in 1895, regulating the sale in Indiana of goods manufactured by

convicts in other states, and providing that such goods should be labelled "convict-made," was amended by the last legislature to apply to goods manufactured in Indiana prisons, as well as those in other states.

The only increased provision for the care of the insane is for one cottage at the Eastern Hospital. The appropriation, amounting to $31,000, is available April 1, 1902; and the building may be expected to be completed the succeeding fall. This will perhaps accommodate 60 women. The General Assembly amended the law regulating insanity inquests by providing that such inquests shall be held by one justice of the peace and two physicians instead of by two justices and one physician, as heretofore.

Two measures referring to county and township charities were enacted. One is a codification of the poor relief laws: the other provides that counties having boards of county charities shall make an annual appropriation of $50 for their expenses.

During the past year the Methodist Episcopal Church has established a Deaconess Hospital in Indianapolis. An addition, with a capacity of 100, was erected at the City Hospital of Indianapolis. Among the county institutions, three new jails and four poor asylums have been erected.

In the field of associated charities the work has been more efficient, and organizations have been strengthened. In Indianapolis the sentiment in favor of social settlements has increased materially, and one new Neighborhood House has been established.

The supervision of all dependent children who are public wards devolves upon the Board of State Charities since the enactment of the dependent children law of 1897. This board's agents also place children directly in family homes. For the past two years two agents have been employed. The last legislature increased the appropriation; and another agent, a woman, will be added to the force. The number of children in the county orphans' homes Oct. 31, 1900, was 1,623. 58 counties had no children in their poor asylums on that date. In the remaining 34 county poor asylums there were 49 children. All but 5 of these were physically or mentally defective or infants. While the number of dependent children who are public wards has not been reduced in the past three years, the average time these children remain inmates of orphans' homes has been reduced from 36 months to 20.6 months, a reduction of over 42

per cent. The activity of the four Boards of Children's Guardians has shown good results.

The successive laws in the past six years regarding official outdoor relief have resulted in a great decrease in the amount of aid given. In 1895 the value of outdoor relief given by the overseers of the poor and the medical relief amounted to $630,168.79. The value of the outdoor and medical relief given for the year ending Aug. 31, 1900, was $209,936.22. This is a decrease of $420,212.57, or a reduction of 66 per cent.

The total population in the state hospitals for insane is 3,566,— an increase of 261 over that of a year ago. This increase is possible by reason of the additional buildings completed at each institution within the past year. The population of the School for Feeble-minded Youth on Jan. 31, 1901, was 740,— an increase of 97 over one year ago. The capacity of the institution was increased by the completion of new buildings within the year. The total population of the correctional institutions Jan. 31, 1901, was 2,472,— a decrease of six from one year ago. There has been practically no increase in the population of these institutions in the past six years. In 1895 their aggregate population was 2,448. Considerable improvements have been made at the state prison; and the new cell house, containing 600 cells, at the Reformatory, is approaching completion. The superintendent of the Reform School for Boys, Professor T. J. Charlton, after twenty-one years of faithful and efficient service, resigned, and retired from active work April 1, 1901.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

No report.

IOWA.

BY HON. L. G. KINNE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The last legislature passed a law placing all county and private institutions where insane persons are kept under the supervision of the Board of Control of State Institutions. The board for itself, or some one it may appoint, is required to visit all these institutions at least twice a year, to make rules and regulations concerning the

keeping of insane patients, and to see that they are complied with. In the event of non-compliance of any county or private institution the board has authority to remove the patients to the state hospitals or to another county or private institution which may have complied with the rules.

The first visitation was made by members of the board. The second visitation is now being made by the physicians connected with our state hospitals.

The rules have been promulgated; and the result is that several institutions have turned their patients over to the state, and they have been transferred to the state hospitals.

The second visitation is not yet completed, so that we do not know to what extent the county institutions may be complying with the rules. These rules are calculated to cause the insane to be better cared for, and to throw safeguards around their care, to require night watches at institutions where necessary, and the proper number of attendants, fire escapes, medical attendants, etc. The law is a great step in advance.

The Women's Reformatory, spoken of in my last report, has not been opened because of the fact that the age limit fixed in the law makes it impractical to open it. The matter will be reported to the next legislature, which meets next winter, for its action.

KANSAS.

BY PROFESSOR F. W. BLACKMAR, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The work of the annual meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction held in Topeka, May, 1900, and the efforts of the Kansas Association stirred the public considerably. Consequently, the last legislature was active in the consideration of measures for the improvement of charitable and correctional affairs. Many measures were proposed, some good and some bad, for the remedy of existing evils. A number of bills failed, and some passed. Of the latter there are many commendable features and some serious defects. The space allotted for this report will not permit the analysis of the various acts and their bearing upon the present situation. Among the more important measures may be mentioned the following: An act to define the condition of child dependency,

neglect, and ill-treatment, and to prescribe methods for the protection, disposition, and supervision of dependent, neglected, and ill-treated children within the state of Kansas. This bill is a thorough digest of the whole matter. It places all children's aid societies under the control of the State Board of Charities.

Another important act provides for the parole of the prisoners of the penitentiary. It allows the governor to grant a conditional parole, which amounts to a conditional pardon. Its object is to return to independent social life those prisoners who give a reasonable assurance that they will henceforth lead a self-supporting law-abiding life. With proper care the law is a good one.

A law for the better management and control of the inmates of the industrial reformatory was passed. An attempt to consolidate the boards of the penitentiary and the reformatory failed.

The most important measure that passed the legislature was a new law governing the charitable and correctional institutions of the state. This law represents a revision of all the old laws and a substitution therefor. It has many important measures. Some of them might be greatly improved, and doubtless will in time. Upon the whole, the law will be of great advantage to the charities and corrections of the state.

The law carries a civil service clause for the employees in the charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions of the state. It is a fairly good law; and, if not used as a cloak for political action, it will prove a move in the right direction. The law made some radical changes in the commitment and care of the insane. It allows a private examination by a commission of physicians to determine insanity. Originally, the bill provided that the patient should be taken to the hospital by an attendant; but the sheriffs of the state objected because it encroached upon their prerogatives. They had sufficient political pull to defeat this provision. The law changes the terms "insane asylum" to "state hospital," "reform school" to "industrial school." The law provides for a State Board of Charities which has supervision over School for the Blind, School for the Deaf and Dumb, Industrial Schools, State Hospitals, School for Weak-minded Children, Orphans' Home.

Upon the whole, there is a spirit of reform in the Kansas institutions which will eventually remove all defects and abuses. Many improvements have been made, and more are to follow. Certainly

there has been a great interest in these matters during the last year.

KENTUCKY.

BY EMMA A. GALLAGHER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

During the last meeting of the legislature a resolution was adopted making it the duty of the Joint Prison Committee to investigate the condition of the penitentiaries of the State once each month; the Board of Prison Commissioners to exercise executive control, authorizing all expenditures for maintenance, improvements, repairs, etc., approving or disapproving all appointments of officials or guards. By an act the power of paroling convicts was vested in this board. The rules adopted show that the paroling board will be extremely cautious in the exercise of the power conferred upon them. All expenses incurred by the parole must be furnished by the persons applying for the release of prisoners. Some reputable citizen of the prisoner's home county must also agree to give him employment for the first three months after his release. The paroled person must report conduct, with signed statement of the county judge, once every six months.

There has been some new work taken in hand by women's clubs and other organizations. An Industrial Home and Shelter has been opened, the object being to care for and reclaim young convicts discharged from our penitentiaries. The railroad department of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union has added to its work a Travellers' Aid, and, upon securing the consent of railroad officials, have placed at each depot a matron to look after the interests of women, and especially young girls and children travelling unattended.

The Children's Free Hospital Circle is extending its work, whereby children of the inaccessible mountain districts may receive benefits of hospital care. The circle will send some one to the mountains to take charge of this noble work. An elegant house was presented, as a memorial, by a liberal citizen to the Women's Christian Association, to be used as a boarding home for young women who work for their living.

There was formerly opened at Keene the Blue-grass Industrial School for the education and training of the boys and girls of our

negro population. A number of prominent people of Central Kentucky are interested in the school, and will give substantial aid to establish and support it. Its founder and principal, a colored man, is ambitious to have it equal the famous Tuskegee Institute.

LOUISIANA.

BY MICHEL HEYMANN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

During last year two more free kindergartens were added to the five already in existence, one of them for colored children. We all recognize that child-saving is the greatest charity, and the free kindergarten the base of child-saving: hence the progress on this line is important, and rejoices the heart of every philanthropist.

The Shakespeare Almshouse has improved by a change of management.

The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children also has made a step forward by electing a new board, whose president is imbued with the true principles of other children's aid societies, a man with a great head and a greater heart, who will spread the ideas of placing the children in good families instead of keeping them herded in institutions. May God bless his labors!

Organized charity is making its way slowly, but it has not the support it should have. Church societies do not co-operate freely with us. We have not enough industrial institutions necessary for the employment of men and women able and willing to work, thereby teaching them to help themselves instead of receiving alms.

Prison reform is progressing. A new jail will soon be built, with modern improvements, steam heat, plenty of pure air and water. The jail will not be cellular, being only used for small demeanants, such as drunkards or vagrants, but will be a vast improvement on the old dilapidated, unsanitary shanty which lodges from two to three hundred prisoners as well as the insane, waiting sometimes weeks and months for transportation to the State Insane Asylum, which is entirely too small. We need sadly another modern hospital for the insane.

The convict lease is a thing of the past, thank the Lord! On January 1 of this year the state took charge of its convicts, who are now employed under state care on two large plantations,

producing sugar-cane, corn, and vegetables. The convicts are treated in a more humane manner; and we are soon to have a State Reformatory for first offenders, as well as a Boys' Reformatory.

Our governor has issued the first conditional pardon, thereby encouraging the passage of an indeterminate sentence and parole law bill.

MAINE.

BY MRS. L. M. N. STEVENS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No new legislation of importance has been effected during the year. There have been no new charitable or correctional organizations formed. Existing ones have received the usual amount of state aid or support.

The Maine Industrial School for Girls is now entirely controlled and supported by the state.

The poor, the insane, and the prisoners are well cared for with the exception of women prisoners. Effort has been made to establish a separate prison for women. The governor of the state and some other influential men favored it, but the matter was referred to the next legislature. There is a growing sentiment in favor of the proposition that female prisoners should be cared for by those of their own sex.

The orphan and dependent children of Maine are well cared for by the various orphans' homes, children's homes, good will homes, etc., existing in the state. Each year more attention is being given to the delinquent and unfortunate classes, with a tendency to provide real homes in private families for children, so far as possible.

MARYLAND.

BY MISS KATE M. McLANE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Maryland has no legislation to report this year.

The Board of State Aid and Charities, created by the legislature of 1900, was formally organized by the election of a secretary, Colonel James R. Brewer, and has established its office, Room 302, Maryland Telephone Building, Lexington and Courtland Streets, Baltimore.

Corporations desiring state aid are given until July 1, 1901, to file their applications. So there is no comment to make on this latest provision for the supervision of the expenditure of state funds by private corporations.

There has been gain to the public treasury and gain to the honest pride of relatives of certain dependent insane from the provision of the act of 1900, regulating the commitment and care of insane persons, which does away with the former requirement that both lunacy and pauperism shall be ascertained by a jury, in court, before a person can be received as a public charge. Under the new law the county commissioners and the supervisors of city charities of Baltimore are allowed to arrange for reimbursement to the city and the counties for the care of patients whose relatives are able to pay for a part, but not all, of their proper keep. The reimbursement to the supervisors of Baltimore City for this account during ten months ending Jan. 1, 1901, amounted to $7,342.

The present excellent policy of the Lunacy Commission of Maryland is to send acute cases to the Maryland Hospital for the Insane at Spring Grove, near Catonsville, and the chronic cases to Springfield Hospital, near Sykesville, Carroll County. This latter admirable institution is well adapted for its purpose, and the fine farm connected with it offers almost unlimited opportunities for employment. The last group of buildings finished is used for insane women, the assistant resident physician being a woman, Dr. Louise D. Holmes. In thus adding a woman to his staff, the superintendent, Dr. J. C. Clark, has shown himself in sympathy with the law of many other states requiring the appointment of a woman physician in any state hospital for the insane having women patients.

The most important matter to be reported on this year from Maryland is the readjustment of the relations between the city of Baltimore and various charitable corporations which care for a majority of the city's pauper and dependent classes, and also the more definite responsibility assumed, under its new charter, by the city for the care of its juvenile wards.

On first assuming office, the supervisors continued for a time those contracts found in effect with hospitals, dispensaries, and children's institutions; but in January, 1901, a new policy was established. The city of Baltimore now exacts of all private corporations contracting with it a minimum standard of service considerably in

advance of what has been, in many cases, accepted during past years. In their first annual report the supervisors express their decision that only such persons may be accepted as public charges as are unable to care for themselves and who cannot be cared for by relatives or by private charity.

The question of hospital and dispensary service for the poor is never an easy one, being in all modern communities largely complicated by the need of clinical experience for medical students.

The city of Baltimore supports and controls but one hospital, that at Bay View, the city almshouse. It uses, however, by contract, four other general hospitals (no two in the same section of the city), one homœopathic general hospital, and three special hospitals,— one for consumptives, one for nervous cases, and one for crippled children. Tentatively, the supervisors have contracted with four general dispensaries (in different "districts"), with one general dispensary belonging to the homœopaths, and with a special dispensary for the eye, ear, and throat. The city only recognizes as city patients, as a rule, such persons as "the medical school dispensaries do not care to treat, and as charitable physicians and private charity dispensaries do not treat."

The wise provisions of the new charter in regard to destitute and neglected children make the welfare of the children the paramount aim of the city officials. The present board of supervisors state as the result of a year's careful study of their problem that "a very valuable system of public aid has been introduced by the new charter." The co-operation between the city and the various private associations caring for children has, on the whole, been cordial and intelligent. For the first time in Baltimore there is the possibility of treating the problem of the dependent child as a whole. The care and supervision of the city over its dependent juvenile wards is absolute. The employees in this city department have been chosen solely with reference to their sincere interest in their work and for their efficiency. A careful record, by means of a card catalogue, is kept of all city charges. During the ten months ending Jan. 1, 1901, 269 applications came to the supervisors to have 395 destitute children placed in institutions or otherwise cared for by the city. 276 of these cases were referred to private charity, 9 were cared for by institutions as private charges, parents or relatives took 72. 2 were returned to Washington, D.C. Only 35 were accepted as public charges, and

placed in institutions having contracts with the city. We feel that this is an excellent record of municipal work.

The board of visitors to the city jail, under the new charter, have supervision over those reformatories in which the city places its delinquent children. Both state and city have lately cut down their appropriations to several of the reformatories for children.

Reports presented at the second annual meeting of the State Federation of Women's Clubs, in March, showed an awakening through the state to the need of a School Attendance Law. The Arundell Good Government Club of Baltimore will issue this month a short report, or school census, giving the results, in a graphic manner, of a careful house-to-house study of a number of small representative city districts. The data, which includes irregularity of school attendance, comprise returns from about 3,500 families; and it will be used as one among many arguments before the next legislature in favor of a School Attendance Law for Maryland.

Two important changes in the officials of private charitable societies in Baltimore resulted from the transfer of Miss M. E. Richmond to Philadelphia. Miss Mary Willcox Brown, formerly general secretary of the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society, accepted the general secretaryship of the Charity Organization Society last October; and Miss Anna E. Rutherford, a graduate of the Johns Hopkins Hospital Training School for Nurses, who has also had some experience as a district nurse and as a settlement worker, became in April general secretary of the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society.

MASSACHUSETTS.

BY JOHN D. WELLS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Results of recent legislation are as follows: —

1. The State Board of Charity is given authority to receive dependent children into its custody, without regard to the question of their settlement, on the written application of parent, guardian, friend, or overseers of the poor; and the courts are given authority to commit dependent as well as neglected children to the custody of a Board, except when the municipal authorities intervene. The benefit of state care and oversight is thus secured to a large class of children.

2. The State Sanatorium at Rutland — an institution for the care

and treatment of consumptive and tuberculous patients, established by legislation of 1895 and opened in 1898, and under the immediate direction of a board of trustees appointed by the governor — has been placed under the general supervision of the State Board of Charity, and measures are in progress for its enlargement and further development.

3. The records of paupers fully supported, of persons relieved and partially supported, and of travellers and vagrants lodged at the expense of cities and towns, which are required to be kept by the overseers of the poor; and the registers of inmates of city and town almshouses, which are required to be kept by the masters of the almshouses,— are to be kept in future in such form as the State Board of Charity shall prescribe.

4. On and after Jan. 1, 1904, all insane persons now cared for by the several cities and towns, except the city of Boston, are to be cared for, controlled, and supported by the state. Moreover, provision has been made for the early establishment of a colony, on a large farm, of quiet chronic insane, to be transferred from the state insane hospitals and asylums.

5. Persons sentenced by the courts may have such sentence suspended, and be placed on probation in the custody of probation officers. If the sentence is to pay a fine, the fine may be paid to the probation officer at any time during the period of probation. The probation officers of such courts as the commissioners of prisons shall designate are to report all cases to the commissioners; and it is the duty of the commissioners to keep a sufficient record of such cases, and to confer from time to time with the justices of the courts and with the probation officers, for the purpose of improving and perfecting the probation service.

6. Provision has been made for the expenditure of a small appropriation by the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind for the purpose of giving instruction to adult blind in their homes.

7. The provisions of the civil service laws have been extended to the police and fire forces of towns; and legislation is pending, giving the Civil Service Commission additional authority in cases of violation of civil service acts and rules.

A bill providing for the inspection of charitable homes and institutions by the State Board of Charity was favorably reported on by the

committee to which it was referred, but the bill finally failed to pass, with prospect, however, of a more satisfactory result another year. Existing laws already require all charitable corporations exempt from taxation to make such annual returns to the board as it may direct.

A bill providing for the approval of charitable homes for children by the State Board of Charity, as a condition of their incorporation, is now under consideration by the legislature, with fair prospect of passage.

A second effort to secure the establishment of a new reformatory for boys, which would be an intermediate institution between the Lyman School and the Concord Reformatory, met with no favor at the hands of the committee to which it was referred, and was defeated.

The farm colony recently established at Templeton, in connection with the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded at Waltham, and about sixty miles distant therefrom, is being steadily developed. 60 or 70 boys, who have passed the school age and are able to labor, have been transferred thereto, and have performed a great deal of work in connection with the construction of new buildings, besides doing some work on the farm.

Especially worthy of mention is the new building for the care and treatment of consumptive men at the State Hospital — formerly known as the State Almshouse — at Tewksbury. The building cost $50,000, and has accommodations for 100 patients, in four different wards, with twenty-five beds in each,— two of the wards, comprising one wing, being devoted to cases of incipient phthisis, and the other two, in the other wing, to the more advanced cases. It is very favorably situated at some little distance from the other buildings of the institution, and is constructed on the latest and most improved methods, being a model of its kind.

MICHIGAN.

BY L. C. STORRS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Michigan legislature meets biennially. It is now (April 8) in session. No legislation along the lines in which the National Conference of Corrections and Charities is interested has thus far been accomplished. There are, however, pending in the legislature

bills which provide for state care of defective dependent children; for a central bureau of information regarding criminals who are, may be, or who have been confined in the prisons of Michigan since the Bertillon method for the identification of criminals was adopted by the state, and for making such information available to the judges of the several circuit courts of the state; for amending the constitution, thereby empowering the legislature to enact a law imposing indeterminate sentences as a punishment for crime; for amending the law governing the appointment of county agents, so that such officer shall be "a person recommended by the Board of Corrections and Charities"; for extending the maximum age of children eligible for admission to the State Public School for dependent children from twelve to fourteen years; for establishing a reformatory prison for women; for the establishing of an additional asylum for the insane. Some change is proposed in the law governing prison labor, but no bill of definite provisions regarding such labor has been prepared; nor for establishing trial of juvenile offenders separate and apart from adult prisoners.

State and private incorporated institutions for the care or placing in homes of dependent and delinquent children are under the supervision of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, such private incorporated institutions making annual reports to the State Board on blanks prepared by it. Each home in which a child is placed on indenture or otherwise must, before a child is placed in it, be approved by the county agent of the Board of Corrections and Charities; and children, after being placed, are under the supervision of the county agent, who is required to make stated visits to them, and report his findings to the institution by whom the child is placed, and to the State Board of Corrections and Charities. No trial of a child against whom a complaint is pending can proceed until a full investigation of the case is had by the county agent, and his report filed with the court. After the child is found guilty, the sentence imposed is on the recommendation of the county agent.

The dependent poor are cared for by the several counties of the state of which they are residents, the permanent paupers principally in poorhouses. The "township system" prevails in a few of the counties of the state. A large number, comparatively, of temporary paupers find relief through the supervisors of the several counties.

The insane are cared for in state asylums, maintenance in which is paid for by the county from which a patient is sent, for one year, after which the state assumes the support of patients. Certain inmates are "state patients" on entering the asylum. Michigan has one county asylum for the insane; namely, Wayne County, in which Detroit is situated. But this is under strict state supervision. Two private asylums for the insane exist in the state.

Michigan has a home for her feeble-minded and epileptic children. While this institution is under control of one board and one superintendent, the two classes of inmates are separated from each other in cottages situated well apart on the grounds.

Three penitentiaries, each under its own board of control, and the Detroit House of Correction care for the prisoners of Michigan. The law provides for the grading of prisoners. Schools, Sunday-schools, and Sunday services are maintained in each state prison; and a chaplain is one of the regular officers of the prison. A parole law is in force, which has proved not only a benefit to many a prisoner, but has aided in the discipline of the prison as well.

MINNESOTA.

BY JAMES F. JACKSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The most important legislation enacted in this field by the legislature recently adjourned was the establishment of the Board of Control of State Institutions, which on August 1 is to supersede and have all the powers of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, and of the governing boards of all the correctional and charitable institutions other than the Board of Trustees of the Soldiers' Home. The present boards will have charge of the general policy, determine the courses of study, the number of teachers to be employed and their salaries at the Schools for the Deaf and Blind and at the State Public School. The financial management of these schools is to be transferred to the Board of Control.

The members of the first board were appointed for terms of two, four, and six years. The terms of their successors will be six years.

The chief executive officers of the several institutions, except the State Public School and the Schools for the Deaf and the Blind, will appoint and discharge all their assistants and employees, the number of whom will be determined by the board.

Detention hospitals have been established in connection with the city and county hospitals in the three most populous counties. To these hospitals the judge of probate and the examining physicians may commit persons alleged to be insane, concerning whom there is doubt. No patient is to be allowed to remain in a detention hospital longer than six weeks. The cost of construction and maintenance of the detention hospitals is to be provided by the state.

This principle in a modified form is extended to all the counties by another law, which provides that no person alleged or found to be insane before the Probate Court shall be kept in jail unless for exceptional reasons and upon the Probate Court's order.

The law for the paroling of prisoners from the state prison has been so amended as to include life prisoners who have served thirty-five years, less their good time allowance. Life prisoners, however, may not be paroled without the unanimous written consent of the members of the Board of Pardons.

A law was enacted providing for the restoration to full citizenship of prisoners convicted of felonies and sentenced to jail or to pay a fine, thus giving them the opportunity formerly open only to felons who have been sentenced to a state prison.

The law governing the distribution of the State Soldiers' Relief Funds was so amended as to make it applicable to soldiers of the Spanish War and their relatives. It is also made applicable to deserted wives, but not to deserting husbands. The amount of relief to be granted is determined for three months at a time, that it may be susceptible of entire adjustment to changing conditions. This relieves the state law from the odium frequently attaching to the administration of federal pensions, which often causes serious demoralization or undermines the independence of the recipient.

A department of sloyd has been introduced in the State Public School. It has heretofore been introduced in every other state institution caring for children.

Military drill has been introduced at the State Reformatory.

The Boys' and Girls' Training School at Red Wing are to be separated; and provision is made for the establishment of a State Training School for Girls, at least two and one-half miles from the present institution, which is to become the State Training School for boys.

The legislature has made provision for four additional cottages on

the farm at the School for the Feeble-minded. This will provide for the care of the epileptics on the colony plan. The additional provision is adequate for all the applicants now awaiting admission to the institution.

The small asylums for the insane at Anoka and Hastings have been acknowledged to be successful; but the last legislature made provision for sufficient addition to triple the present capacity, thus jeopardizing an essential condition of the success of the present method.

The legislature made an appropriation for the necessary expenses of a commission to investigate and report concerning the advisability of establishing and maintaining a state sanatorium for consumptives.

A law was enacted imposing a penalty upon an officer who shall issue a marriage license to any persons either of whom is known by him to be afflicted with epilepsy, imbecility, feeble-mindedness, or insanity.

The abandonment or neglect of a family was made a felony.

Another law provides that the county, and not the city or village, shall be responsible for the necessary assistance of non-resident paupers.

A law was enacted to promote the health and welfare of infants born and cared for in places not the home of their parents. An important purpose of the law was to reduce the ease with which illegitimate children may be either neglected or disposed of.

After a trial of a year and a half the probation law, now applicable to the three most populous counties, was amended by increasing the maximum age of juveniles who may be placed on probation from eighteen to twenty-one years.

Henceforth all the care of the poor in St. Louis County, in which Duluth is situated, is to be under the charge of an unpaid board of poor commissioners appointed by the district judges.

The Minnesota Children's Home Society have received a site midway between the cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis, upon which this year will be erected a temporary home with a capacity of 35 children.

The Odd Fellows' Home at Northfield has been completed nearly a year. This home is intended for the decrepit members and for the widows and children of deceased members, but as yet there are few inmates. The German Catholic Orphan Asylum at St. Paul has removed to a new site with commodious grounds.

The number of good small hospitals, public and private, is steadily increasing, the new city hospital at Owatonna being one of the latest and best equipped.

MISSISSIPPI.

BY HON. J. L. POWER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There have been no changes in recent years in this state. An effort was made at the last legislature to establish a juvenile reformatory, and there is a strong sentiment in favor of such legislation. It is very probable that it may be again considered by our legislature next winter. A member of the State Senate, Mr. George, has recently given notice that he is preparing a bill to provide for a home for disabled and indigent Confederate soldiers, for destitute orphans, and a state hospital, all to be under one administration; and the proposition is meeting with much favor. The state has recently purchased a tract of some 12,000 acres in the Delta section of the state for a state prison farm, the idea being to have all the convicts under state control instead of working them on plantations jointly by state and plantation owners. All of our eleemosynary institutions are under excellent management and are generously supported by the state. The associated charities at Meridian is making efforts to stop children begging in the streets, and to secure the establishment of a juvenile reformatory.

MISSOURI.

BY MISS MARY E. PERRY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The altruistic spirit of the times was manifested during our last General Assembly by the number of bills passed for our helpless classes and the generous provision made for them.

The women prisoners confined in the state penitentiary at Jefferson City will be removed from their present desolate, cramped building to a new one costing $50,000, where they will have the benefit of grounds, light, and sunshine. The male prisoners at the expiration of their terms will receive $5 in addition to their suit of clothes and railroad ticket. A clerk of pardons, whose duties will be similar to the one in Washington, D.C., was appointed by

Governor Dockery. Children under arrest, under the age of sixteen years, will be looked after by probation officers, the chief one receiving a salary of $800 a year, the two deputies, one of whom will be a woman, receiving $600 a year, and the three $100 each for necessary expenses. To Mrs. Henry W. Eliot of St. Louis, more than any one, is the city indebted for this Probation Law for Juvenile Delinquents. As a member of the jail committee of the Humanity Club, she has given much time and thought to this class of offenders, studying the laws of different states in their interest, and finally choosing for St. Louis the best features in the Massachusetts and Minnesota laws and adjusting them to our conditions. Active work by the probation officers will begin early in June, after the nomination of the chief officer by the State Board of Charities and Corrections and his confirmation by a majority of the circuit judges.

The Bertillon system for the identification of criminals in the cities of the state and in the penitentiary has been introduced. The interest of labor will be considered by a State Board of Arbitration, consisting of three members, an employer, employee, and one disinterested person. The state will see to it that all factories will be inspected twice a year; and officers will be appointed for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of salaries paid employees, condition of workshops, and the ages of the children found at work in them. A compulsory education law passed both Houses of the General Assembly, but was vetoed by Governor Dockery. Our eleemosynary and penal institutions were given generous appropriations. Work on the cottages of both the new Insane Asylum at Farmington and the Feeble-minded and Epileptic Colony at Marshall continues. In about a month both will be ready to receive patients. Between two and three hundred applications for admission to the Feeble-minded and Epileptic Colony have been received, showing the need there was in the state for this institution. These new institutions are beautifully situated, modern, and satisfactory. Organizations or individuals from now on sending maimed or defective children into this state will be subject to a fine. To our private charities two noteworthy gifts were donated, one a Home for Incurables to the Bethesda Association. The other recipient is the Children's Home Society of Missouri of a commodious building for a home for the children and the prospect in the near future of an endowment for it. Vacation playgrounds were opened last summer by the social economic section of

the Wednesday Club. Under the able management of Mrs. Dwight Tredway and others they proved a great success. The work has enlisted the interest of other clubs and the School Board, and will be undertaken upon a larger scale this summer. The Associated Charities in Kansas City has done satisfactory work during the past year. They have about completed arrangements there for a Farm Home for dependent old men. Joplin, the centre of our mining region in the south-western part of the state, will soon have a new Children's Home.

The St. Louis Provident Association has inaugurated the following new departments during the past winter: —

The establishment of the Provident Penny Savings Bank, which has been quite liberally patronized by our beneficiaries and a number of depositors from the outside.

The Legal Aid Department of the Provident Association will look after those who may be oppressed by money-lenders or from other causes, and will give advice and legal assistance without charge to those not able to pay for the service of an attorney. The department is organized with an Advisory Board of Counsellors of eminent lawyers of the city.

The name of the woman's lodge at the central office has been changed from the Provident Association Lodge to the Alcott Club. Many people who might be entitled to the accommodations which we had refused to accept them because they did not like to state that they stayed at the Provident Association Lodge.

Our first Missouri State Conference of Charities and Correction was held in St. Louis in January. It attracted a good deal of attention throughout the state, and we are glad that this first step has been taken. Our next meeting will be held in Columbia, the seat of our State University. I think there is an awakening all over the state in the subjects for which the National Conference of Charities is working.

MONTANA.

BY WALTER M. JORDAN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The last legislature appropriated $41,500 for additional buildings, etc., for the State Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Asylum at Boulder. This will make a fine equipment for this institution.

$12,500 was also appropriated to complete the main building of the State Orphans' Home at Twin Bridges, also $5,000 to build and equip a cottage for a nursery at the State Orphans' Home. The home can now care for 100 children, and these new improvements just mentioned will double its capacity.

An appropriation was also made to the State Reform School at Miles City of $1,500,—$1,000 for the purchase of machinery and material for manual training work and $500 for repairs and improvements.

The State Board of Charities and Reform consists of three clergymen, whose report shows that the state penitentiary has 352 prisoners. 470 insane patients are kept by contract in the asylum at Warm Springs. The state pays 65 cents per capita for each patient. The total amount paid the contractors for the year was $115,142. The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb has cared for 40 patients during the past year. It is very much overcrowded. The board of trustees recommended the establishment of a state school for feeble-minded, as no provision whatever is made for this unfortunate class.

NEBRASKA.

BY A. W. CLARK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

An advisory State Board of Charities was created by our recent legislature. The bill in its final form was passed the last day of the session, in the month of March, and signed by the governor. For the past eight years a few of us have worked for the accomplishment of this result. At times the difficulties in the way of its accomplishment seemed insurmountable. In addition to ignorance, lack of interest, and the unreasonable cry for economy, we found that our state constitution distinctly prohibits the creation of any additional state board whatever. This latter difficulty was overcome with the aid of the best legal advisers of the state, who drafted a bill in harmony with the state constitution, making the governor, the commissioner of public lands and buildings, and the superintendent of public instruction, the board *in fact*, and further providing that these three men be empowered to select four advisory secretaries, and that these seven men should select a chief secretary who should be the paid executive officer of the board, all the others to serve

without pay. This bill was in legal form two years ago, but the cry for economy at that time killed it. It has been by a gradual process of education for eight years that the way was prepared for the passage of the bill at the recent legislature. We know that all members of the Conference will rejoice with us over the successful issue. Mr. John Davis has been chosen general secretary of the board.

Another bill passed the recent legislature, defining the position and details of the work of the industrial schools. A former act, calling these institutions reform schools, was abolished, and also a former act, fixing the age limit at eighteen years, was abolished; and the age limit by the last act of the legislature was fixed at sixteen years, when boys and girls may be sent. This bill, drafted in the light of the best knowledge of modern times, will be of great value to the superintendents of these institutions in enabling them to carry out the objects of industrial schools.

A bill to establish a State Public School, after the plans of Michigan and Minnesota, received favorable consideration in the House of Representatives; but lack of time prevented its being carried through the Senate. Other bills touching the powers and duties of guardianship and other matters were introduced, but from lack of attention were lost.

Members of the Conference will be interested to know what Nebraska has been doing in the care and treatment of the feeble-minded, the insane, and the epileptics. We must confess that Nebraska has been behind most of the other states in the care of these classes. We acknowledge with shame and regret that the conditions in our State Institute for the Feeble-minded Youth has not only been a disgrace to our state, but a blot upon civilization. Some of these deplorable conditions, at times, have existed in the three state institutions for the care of the insane. Very little has been attempted in the way of medical treatment; and very little, also, has been attempted in the way of classification of the inmates. These unfortunate ones have received almost nothing besides the food and shelter provided by the state. As one of the ex-officials of a hospital recently said, "We can do nothing more than to herd them like so many cattle." A regular routine of bromide treatment has been followed for years in the institutions caring for these classes. In the State Institute for the Feeble-minded Youth, with great regularity most of the time since the institute was founded, three times

a day, at the meal hour, when the inmates were seated at the table, a tablespoonful of bromide solution was given to each one,— "high grades" and "low grades" and all others, regardless of everything, before beginning the meal. The object in this was not medical treatment, but for the purpose of quieting, and making it easier for the attendants to handle them. Close observation upon the part of some who have made a study of this practice has convinced them that the effects of the drug on the nerve centres, when given in this way, has been to hasten insanity of mind in many cases, and to sink many of them to lower levels, intellectually and physically. Similar methods of bromide treatment have been, from time to time, carried on in the hospitals for the insane. The physicians in charge have not been so much to blame as the governing power of the state. All of our state institutions are, and have been from the beginning, wholly under political influence; and, as a rule, superintendents and assistants have been appointed on the basis of the political strength which they represent. First of all was considered what they had done for their "party" and what they might be able to do during the next campaign. I am glad to mention that some of our governors have tried to make fitness for the position come first, and consider political influence afterwards, but have failed to carry out their good purposes.

We deeply regret that many of our buildings in Nebraska are inadequate to suitably provide for these unfortunate classes. In many cases, this makes it impossible to have proper classification of the inmates. This condition of things must continue for some time to come. The better classes are, and must be, kept in wards together with the epileptics. These better classes, who might be greatly helped under proper conditions and treatment, must be daily exposed to influences which prevent the accomplishment of much good in the way of treatment. They must daily listen to the alarming screams of an epileptic preceding a convulsion, and must witness the writhing, convulsed body, the distorted features, the staring eyes, and the frothing lips. It is pitiable in the extreme when some of the inmates of the better class beg, as they often do, to be taken some place else, and are told there is no other place for them. Day after day they must remain under these depressing surroundings, which tend to drag them all to lower levels.

With a new State Board of Charities and with the wide informa-

tion and enlightened convictions of the present time, we look forward with hope toward the realization of better conditions in all our state institutions.

It is estimated that 1,200 epileptics are living in Nebraska outside of all institutions. 60 per cent. of the inmates of the Institute for the Feeble-minded are epileptics, while not more than 40 per cent. of the inmates of the hospitals for the insane are epileptics.

Some of us in Nebraska believe in the colony plan for epileptics, and hope to make a movement toward providing something in that direction in the near future. We believe it will be possible to secure the grounds and buildings now occupied as a State Soldiers' Home, at Milford, through political influence. This home was established some years ago, and is not only a constant burden to the state; but its existence is wholly unnecessary.

The Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Grand Island is well equipped to care for all in the state who need such a home.

On behalf of homeless and dependent children, six organizations are at work in Nebraska.

The Nebraska Children's Home Society, with its efficient management, has local committees organized in every important town of the state and is doing a splendid work. This society has not established a home for temporary shelter for children, and does not undertake much in the way of relief and aid work on behalf of children.

The Child Saving Institute of Omaha is a strong organization, with a Home established in the city, which is well equipped for providing temporary shelter to children in need of such care. This society undertakes a great deal in the way of aid work to assist parents in keeping their own children, and also provides permanent homes for children which are absolutely surrendered. Considerable time is also devoted to rescuing children from vicious surroundings by process of law. During the past year 190 children were handled.

The Home for the Friendless, a state institution at Lincoln, is well equipped for accomplishing considerable work; but, owing to unfavorable conditions in the past, comparatively little has been done. It is practically a local institution, and has been largely engaged in the work of boarding children. Some years ago the home was under private management; and after appropriations were secured from the State, both for buildings and maintenance, a conflict arose over the management. It continued until two years ago

last January, when the state took entire possession and control. The home is not well known throughout the state, and under the present plans of its management there can be but little hope of realizing the object contemplated in such an institution. No provision is made in this institution for the care and education of crippled children; and no provision is made elsewhere in the State for such children except in county poorhouses, where they receive no education. It is humiliating to us in Nebraska that these helpless children, many of them susceptible of good education, are now being held in county poorhouses.

The Catholic Orphanage of Omaha is provided with good buildings and educational facilities. This institution is largely a boarding-school for children of the poor. Some work, however, is being done in placing orphan children in homes for adoption.

The Mother's Jewels' Home, located at York, is a Methodist orphanage, established by the General Conference of that denomination. While it is a denominational institution, devoted especially to the care of children from Methodist families, it takes in also other children, provides temporary care, and places quite a number in homes for adoption. This home is well equipped with buildings located on a splendid farm adjoining the city.

The Tabitha Home is a denominational institution, established by the Lutheran people at Lincoln, Neb. This institution, however, is more local in character than the one mentioned above and does less in the way of placing children for adoption.

NEVADA.

No report.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

BY MRS. I. N. BLODGETT.

The legislature of 1901 established a State School for Feeble-minded Children, and appropriated $30,000 for the erection of buildings. The bill provides that "the state shall establish and maintain a school for the care and education of the idiotic and feeble-minded between three and twenty-one years of age. All children supported by towns

or counties who, in the judgment of the selectmen or county commissioners, are capable of being benefited by school instruction shall be committed to this institution." Its purpose is so to train and educate them, if possible, as to make them in some degree self-supporting, so that they may not be during all their life a burden to the state or county. Children of parents who are able to pay for their care and training may be admitted. The bill was labored for most zealously by several energetic and public-spirited women, and in spite of considerable opposition in the beginning was finally passed without contest. It is believed by many to be the beginning of a system by which the state is finally to take entire charge of all the feeble-minded, indigent, and insane, whether children or adults.

NEW JERSEY.

BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The reports of the various state institutions for 1900 indicate a successful year of administration. Economies have been introduced, as well as improved educational methods; while the records of industrial activities in garden and in workshop bear witness to progressive administration. The School for the Deaf added sloyd and half-tone engraving to its industrial school. The Morris Plains Hospital for the Insane reports, "The training school for nurses has fulfilled the most sanguine expectations of those who advocated its establishment." Among the buildings erected are an assembly hall at the Home for Feeble-minded Women; a trade school building at the State Home for Boys; a new cottage at the State Home for Girls; two new cottages to accommodate eighty patients at the Village for Epileptics. In addition there is the splendid reformatory at Rahway, which will be opened shortly under the superintendency of James E. Heg, formerly of the Wisconsin State Reformatory, and recognized as an exceptionally able exponent of the most advanced reformatory methods.

The following table indicates the number in each state institution Oct. 31, 1900, and the expense of administration for the fiscal year then ending: —

State Home for Boys	378	$81,527.15
State Home for Girls	115	20,730.99

State Prison	1,091	$206,707.43
State Hospital for Insane (Trenton)	1,117	274,818.13
State Hospital for Insane (Morris Plains)	1,389	338,539.50
State Village for Epileptics	19	7,845.56
School for Deaf-mutes	133	38,993.49
Home for Feeble-minded Women	113	20,948.43
Home for Disabled Soldiers	542	156,027.00

This table gives the total cost of maintenance. The net cost is much reduced in several institutions by the sales of products which vary from $175 at the State Home for Girls to $81,032 at the State Prison. Again, the Home for Disabled Soldiers receives but $20,000 from the state treasury, or 12 per cent. of its maintenance.

The Act of 1900 regulating the State Home for Girls and providing for a parole system is now in effect. The age of admission was raised to ten years and a mixed board of trustees appointed, one of whom visits the home at least once a fortnight.

The only legislation in 1900 pertaining to charity or correction consisted of an enabling act for the Rahway Reformatory which embodies provisions for the introduction of indeterminate sentences.

The probation bill of 1899 has been put in successful operation, including Essex, Hudson, Mercer, Morris, and Middlesex Counties. Probation Officer Doremus, of Essex, reports 148 offenders, only 9 of whom have been sent to prison and 2 to the State Home for Boys. His collections for fourteen months have been $1,547.86. Officer Higgins, of Hudson, has given the problem careful attention and reports 121 probationers,—44 men, 2 women, 3 girls, and 72 boys. Of 121 probationers, 13 violated their parole, and were returned to the court for sentence.

The work of the State Board of Children's Guardians in placing out children was so successful that practically all opposition has broken down both among the county freeholders and in the legislature. The latter increased the appropriation from $2,000 to $5,000, which has enabled the board to engage a salaried superintendent, and to defray the expenses of administration which have hitherto largely fallen upon Mrs. Williamson and Mr. Fox, the president of the board. The Hudson County Board of Freeholders were the last to see the economy and wisdom of substituting home for almshouse training and environment. During the single month of May 168 children were removed from the Hudson County almshouse.

The success of this work has been due chiefly to the devoted interest and executive ability of Mrs. Emily E. Williamson, who has for two years gratuitously given her services as superintendent to the Board of Guardians. The activities of the board have so multiplied, as have those of the State Charities Aid Association, that these organizations have decided to relieve Mrs. Williamson of the more onerous administrative functions; and Seymour H. Stone, for five years with the Boston Children's Aid Society, has been made superintendent of the State Board of Children's Guardians, and William H. Allen, general secretary of the State Charities Aid Association. Mrs. Williamson remains chairman of the Executive Committee of the State Charities Aid Association and treasurer of the State Board of Children's Guardians.

NEW MEXICO.

BY REV. MARY J. BORDEN, TERRITORIAL CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

With one exception there has been no change whatever in New Mexico in the line of charities and corrections. During the last legislature a law was passed for the establishment of a reform school for boys at Belen, N.M. Otherwise the same appropriations were granted for the sustenance of the institutions that have been reported year after year. With the deadening influence of a large majority of Mexican population all reform work must necessarily be of exceedingly slow growth.

NEW YORK.

BY HOMER FOLKS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No new state institutions were established by the legislature of 1901, and no very important legislation affecting charitable interests in the state as a whole was enacted. The revised charter of New York City, which will take effect Jan. 1, 1902, contains, however, important provisions relating to charitable interests in that city. Among these are the following: 1. The substitution of one commissioner of charities for the existing board of three members; 2. Important provisions facilitating the placing of destitute children in

families, either by the charities department directly or through societies incorporated for the care of children or for placing children in families; 3. Provisions in regard to the health and safety of children placed in institutions having branches beyond the city limits; 4. A provision that grandparents, as well as parents, shall be legally liable for the support of destitute children; 5. A new plan for the government of Bellevue Hospital and the three smaller hospitals — Gouverneur, Harlem, and Fordham — located in the city proper. These four hospitals are to be separated in administration from the Department of Public Charities, and placed under the control of a board of seven trustees, serving seven years each, the term of one member expiring each year. These charitable societies are to submit lists to the mayor from which the trustees may be appointed, though the mayor may disregard such recommendations. It is hoped by the friends of the change that it will eliminate politics from the management of these hospitals, and place them more nearly on a footing with the city hospitals of Boston and Cincinnati, which are governed by boards of trustees.

A children's court is established for all cases involving the trial and commitment of children under sixteen years of age, now tried in seven different magistrates' courts. The provision does not include children arrested for actual offences, but includes cases of destitution, neglect, improper guardianship, incorrigibility, begging on the streets, etc. The number of children committed by the magistrates' courts is about 2,500 per year. The establishment of this court was strongly supported by the leading charitable societies of this city, and important benefits are expected as a result.

The charitable interests of the state were probably never more surprised than on Jan. 1, 1901, when they read in the inaugural message of the new governor a recommendation that the existing State Board of Charities be abolished and a new board created, to consist of one salaried official and two state officers, *ex officio*, to serve without remuneration. A bill to carry out the governor's recommendation was introduced in the legislature shortly after its opening. A number of the important charitable societies and institutions in New York City organized an opposition to the measure. In all parts of the state the sentiment of those familiar with charitable work was found to be, practically, unanimously in favor of the retention of the present board. The testimony of leading members

of the legislature was that no measure introduced in recent years encountered such wide-spread, well-organized, and effective opposition. The friends of the bill became convinced that it was not a wise measure, and the bill was not reported from committee in either house.

A site for the State Hospital for Consumptives, established by the legislature of 1900, was selected by the board of trustees in the summer of 1900. The selection encountered much opposition from property owners in the locality, and also from representatives of another locality in which a state prison is already located, and which desires to be favored with this hospital. It was stoutly maintained that this particular location was the most eligible one in the entire state for the State Hospital for Consumptives. Eventually, the board of trustees selected a second choice, not, however, the location in which the state prison is located. An appropriation was made by the legislature of 1901 for buildings for the institution; but, unfortunately, a provision was added requiring the site to be still further approved by a board to consist of the governor, the president *pro tempore* of the Senate, and speaker of the Assembly.

The State Hospital for Crippled Children, established by the legislature of 1900, is located in a rented building at Tarrytown, N.Y.

The Tenement House Commission, appointed in 1900, submitted a report to the legislature of 1901, recommending very important changes in the building laws relating to tenement houses, and creating a new municipal department in New York City for the enforcement of the laws relating to them. The recommendations of the commission were adopted substantially without change by the legislature, and constitute the most important advance ever made by New York City in tenement-house reform.

As to correctional work, the appointment of Hon. S. J. Barrows as corresponding secretary of the Prison Association of New York should be noted. Largely through his efforts a probation law has been enacted, providing for the appointment of probation officers in all criminal courts in all cities of the state. Unfortunately, the bill, while pending, was amended so as to make it inapplicable to children under sixteen years of age. It was held that it would conflict with the powers of the Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. The probation officers may be officers of the court, of the district attorney's office, police officers, or private citizens. They are to

serve without compensation other than that which they receive in their official positions. Persons sentenced to pay fines may be placed on probation until the fine is paid. A parole law has been passed which applies to state prisoners under a definite sentence for a felony, the maximum penalty of which is imprisonment for five years or less. A parole officer is to be appointed for each state prison and for the Eastern Reformatory.

The state prison at Sing Sing has been condemned by the State Board of Health as unfit for human habitation, but no steps have been taken to remedy the evil. The Eastern Reformatory, which receives the same class of prisoners as the Elmira Reformatory, has been opened, but has not as yet been completed; nor has a reformatory régime been adopted.

A special law providing for a probation system for juveniles brought before the Buffalo police courts has passed both branches of the legislature, and is now in the hands of the governor. Buffalo has taken the preliminary steps to provide for three municipal playgrounds for the summer of 1901. The amount of city outdoor relief has been still further reduced, and is now $38,000 per annum, as compared with $118,000 three years ago.

At this date the Brooklyn Union for Christian Work and the Bureau of Charities are being consolidated under the name of the latter institution. The Brooklyn Children's Aid Society has extended its work of boarding in private families children committed to it by the Department of Public Charities.

Under the new plan adopted by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in October, 1900, for the regulation of appropriations to private institutions, the total amount so appropriated was $87,391.54 less for 1901 than for 1900. The appropriations to children's institutions were largely decreased, and the appropriations to hospitals increased.

NORTH CAROLINA.

BY C. B. DENSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The amount of expenditure by the state of North Carolina for education and charity is now about two-thirds of the taxation for state purposes. Within the past decade — indeed, within five years — extraordinary additions have been made in all lines of charitable

and educational development. The report of the Board of Public Charities, Jan. 1, 1901, shows more progress than ever before.

The State Hospital for Insane at Morganton, already the largest in the state, is enlarging its accommodations; and the General Assembly has provided for the continuance of the same. The State Hospital for Insane at Raleigh has just completed substantial additions. The State Hospital for Colored Insane at Goldsboro, already several times enlarged, is to receive funds for an additional building, contract to be made immediately.

The institutions for the deaf at Morganton, the blind at Raleigh, and for deaf and blind of the colored race at Raleigh have received many improvements, such as industrial buildings, water-works, farming lands, etc.

The State Soldiers' Home has been given a modern hospital, well arranged, and an appropriation nearly twice as large as it received prior to 1899.

The orphan asylums, chiefly supported by the state, at Oxford, for each race, have been improved and enlarged, and a debt upon the asylum for the colored race discharged by the state.

The penitentiary at Raleigh has received an electric plant inferior to none in the state; and the portion devoted to criminal insane is at once to have additional improvements, and to be cut off entirely from the grounds used by convicts.

On account of the pending constitutional amendment to go into effect in 1902, making educational qualifications for suffrage, the tax for common schools, heretofore about $850,000, was increased by a direct appropriation of $200,000 more, making the largest amount ever given. This does not include any local taxation, as for graded schools, etc.

To protect the public interests, the governor was authorized to appoint a board of examiners in 1902, prior to the meeting of the next General Assembly, to examine the accounts of the various institutions, instead of continuing the present plan of special committees from the Assembly to visit each, report to be made by the meeting of the legislature.

Boards of directors and superintendents were forbidden to begin new structures or extend former buildings from appropriations for support. If emergency requires use of funds of maintenance, approval to be given by the council of state, which is the body of the executive officers.

It was also enacted that hereafter only the indigent insane are to be cared for at public expense. Patients able to pay for treatment will be charged the per capita cost of the institutions, that of the State Hospital at Morganton, for example, being $133 per annum.

Unfortunately, the necessarily large expenditures induced the postponement of the Reform School, greatly needed, and for which there was a greater general demand than for certain appropriations secured by adroit friends of measures, although all were meritorious. A law was passed providing for the indenture as apprentices of vagrant and dissolute children, under proper circumstances, by the clerk of the superior court of each county, who has the functions of a probate judge.

To six schools in each county, who should first make up a proportional part equal to the same, a small appropriation was given, to found a school library.

The educational and social improvement of the people formed the leading subject of the inaugural of the new governor, who will make a campaign of education this year.

Voluntary institutions of charity are rapidly increasing. There are now orphanages at Oxford (Masons), and in Granville County (colored Baptists), Charlotte (Protestant Episcopal), Barium Springs (Presbyterian), Thomasville (Baptist), Raleigh (Methodist), Nazareth, near Raleigh (Roman Catholic), Goldsboro (Odd Fellows), and one not yet located, being organized by the Christian church.

Hospitals, some of which are admirably equipped, have been founded as follows: Wilmington (two); Tarboro; Asheville (City Mission); Charlotte (St. Peter's, Protestant Episcopal, and St. Joseph's, colored); Durham (Watts Hospital and hospital for colored); Raleigh (Rex Hospital, St. Agnes for colored, and Shaw Mission Hospital, colored). These have reported their means, work, etc., to the Board of Public Charities.

A well-provided sanatorium for the insane, epileptic, and inebriate, will shortly be opened at Morganton, under the management of two experienced alienists of the State Hospital, and will be known as the Broadoaks Sanatorium. It is licensed, and to be regularly inspected by the State Board of Public Charities.

The progress of North Carolina speaks for itself.

NORTH DAKOTA.

BY REV. B. H. BRASTED, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

But little advance has been made during the year along the line of charities and corrections. There has been no legislation, no new organizations; and, so far as I know, nothing has been done by women's clubs. The insane asylum is well managed. Such epileptics and feeble-minded as are a public charge are cared for at the insane asylum. Measures were taken by the last legislature to establish an institution for feeble-minded, but some time will elapse before its realization. There is no State Board of Charities and Corrections in North Dakota. There is no institution and no society in the state, except the North Dakota Children's Home Society, that will care for children under three years old. That society since entering its new building last fall has considerably enlarged its work. If some one familiar with the work of the National Conference of Charities and Correction and interested in its work could visit the state, much good might be done.

OHIO.

BY JOSEPH P. BYERS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no session of our legislature since the last report. The past year has been an unusually quiet one. The State Conference of Charities and Correction, held in Dayton in October, was attended by more than three hundred delegates; and much good was accomplished, notably in the meetings of the Associated Charities section, where the question of broadening and strengthening the work of the societies, particularly in the smaller cities, was thoroughly discussed in stimulating the interest and work of the country visitors, and in the section of the infirmary officials, where new light was thrown on the outdoor relief problem through a system of colored charts by which comparisons were made between counties of the same approximate population. These charts were reproduced in the printed proceedings.

Progress is being made in the custodial care of adult idiots. Buildings are being erected on the farm recently purchased by the

state for that purpose (1,068 acres), and at least some of the buildings will be ready for occupancy before the close of the present year. Between thirty and forty boys, men in years, most of them, were kept on the farm during the past winter, the old farm buildings purchased with the land being used for that purpose.

It is probable that the next General Assembly will be asked to pass legislation favorable to the establishment of juvenile courts in our larger cities; a probation system for first offenders; ample appropriations to carry into effect the policy of state care for all insane and idiots within the time limit already set,— namely, June 1, 1903; and separate provision for the insane criminals.

In 1894 the State Conference Board of Ohio Hospitals was organized. This board is composed of the superintendents, stewards, and members of boards of trustees of the eight Ohio hospitals and the Board of State Charities. Its purpose is for conference and to institute comparisons of management, fiscal and otherwise. The value of the organization has been great; the general management of the hospitals has been made in many ways more uniform; there have been large savings in the purchase of supplies; a uniform dietary was established, wages equalized, disproportion in the number of employees made possible of correction; and, while the old spirit of rivalry on the part of superintendents and other officials has not relaxed, it has been softened, and their mutual regard for each other strengthened by their frequent meetings and consequent social contact. At the last meeting of the board a number of colored charts, prepared by the secretary of the Board of State Charities, were discussed at considerable length. These charts showed at a glance the average cost of the principal articles of diet, comparative size of institutions, per capita costs on meats, breadstuffs, milk, wages, tobacco, etc. Similar charts will be prepared for the next annual meeting of this board, showing, in addition to the above, the per capita quantities of the main articles of diet consumed in each hospital.

OKLAHOMA.

BY MRS. R. W. RAMSAY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There is little to report of work done in the field of charities and correction in Oklahoma the past year. Criminals and delinquents

are still cared for by contract, though the outlook is toward a change. The territorial legislature which met the past winter passed a public buildings bill which made provision for the erection of a penitentiary, a reformatory for boys and one for girls, a blind and deaf and dumb institution, and an insane asylum. For reasons which seem to the majority of the people satisfactory the governor vetoed this bill. The feeling seems to be growing, however, that Oklahoma should care for her own criminals and dependants; and it is only a question of a few years when she will be able to do so.

The women's clubs have not taken up benevolent or reform work at any place.

In Guthrie is the only organization devoted to charitable work, the Women's Benevolent Association. Just now it is planning the erection of a hospital.

The poor of the territory are cared for by the county commissioners of the county wherein they are found. The attempt was made to pass a bill during the last legislature providing for the building of poorhouses, but it failed because there seemed to be no need for such buildings save in two counties of the territory.

OREGON.

BY W. R. WALPOLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of January, 1901, passed an act granting $50 per annum for each orphan child under the age of fourteen years cared for in institutions containing more than five children, provided that no other pay is received for care of said children. Quasi-state institutions receive no aid under this act.

An act requiring that female patients in transit to the insane asylum be placed in charge of female attendants passed the House, but failed in the Senate.

An enabling act allowing cities to levy a tax of one-fifth mill to maintain free libraries was passed. Women's clubs, particularly that of Portland, were largely instrumental in securing its passage. A young Woman's Christian Association has been organized and established in suitable quarters, under good management, in this city.

Vicious children are sent to the State Reform School. The

principal work for dependent and delinquent children is done by the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, a quasi-state institution for which the last legislature appropriated $6,000. Counties throughout the state pay this society for sixty-day commitments of delinquent children. It is an incorporated society, receiving also a considerable support from private sources. Its work has increased largely in the past few years, being conducted in a very efficient and economical manner. It has a large and well-equipped home for the temporary care of children during the period required to place them in good homes.

A branch of the National Children's Home Society is doing some work in the state not altogether of a commendable character. No new features have developed (although there is plenty of room for improvement) in regard to care of prisoners, feeble-minded, or epileptics.

The county commissioners of this (Multnomah) county discontinued outdoor relief last September, referring all applicants for such aid to the City Board of Charities. No difficulty has been found in providing all necessary aid at about one-fourth the former cost. The expense is borne by the society, which is entirely supported by subscription and has an efficient corps of friendly visitors.

PENNSYLVANIA.

At the present writing there is every probability that a juvenile court bill will pass the House, as it has already passed the Senate, and be signed by the governor. This bill is the result of several years of faithful work by a committee of the New Century Club. Its chief provisions are: (1) separate places of detention for offenders under fourteen; (2) visitation by reformatory officials of homes in which children are paroled from the institutions; (3) inspection by Board of Public Charities of all charities receiving children under the act; (4) associations outside the state that place children within its boundaries must furnish the Board of Public Charities with satisfactory guarantees as to the health and character of children so placed, and must remove from the state any child becoming a public charge within five years; (5) a special court-room, to be designed as the juvenile court-room, shall be set

aside in each judicial district of the state, and one or more judges shall be designed, whose duty it shall be to hear all cases of children under the age of sixteen; (6) probation officers not paid from the public treasury may be appointed by this court to investigate the circumstances of cases, to be present at the hearing, and to take charge of any children before or after trial designated by the court; (7) in the cases of delinquent children, the court may continue the hearing from time to time, leaving children in the charge of probation officers, subject to be returned to the court whenever such action may appear to be necessary.

Under the act passed in 1897, fifteen counties are now caring for a large part of their insane. This county care system seems to have gained a strong hold on the charitable people of the state, though it is too early to judge of its results.

A bill providing that all condemned criminals should be sent either to the Eastern Penitentiary at Philadelphia or to the Western at Allegheny has failed of passage, owing to the opposition of the wardens of these institutions. The purpose of the bill was to avoid in the future revolting spectacles that have been due in the past to the inexperience of local sheriffs.

The Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis is urging upon the legislature now in session an appropriation of $50,000 for a sanatorium in the highlands of the state, but it is impossible to predict with what success.

RHODE ISLAND.

BY HENRY B. GARDNER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

In addition to institutions and movements noticed in previous reports, the following call for mention at this time: —

Providence District Nursing Association.— This association was formed about a year ago, to maintain a trained nurse who should visit in the homes of the poor, giving not only care, but instruction in the care of the sick. For six months one nurse only was employed, and the expense was met by a single individual. The association has now been organized on a broader basis, an additional nurse has been employed, and it is hoped soon to increase the number to four. The work has apparently been very successful.

Improved Tenement-house Corporation.— This corporation was also

organized about one year ago with a capital stock of $5,000, of $25 each. It purchased an ordinary tenement, which it has repaired and placed in excellent sanitary condition, and rented at practically the same rents as were paid before. The building has now been rented about nine months; and it is hoped that by the end of another year the corporation will have accumulated a small reserve fund, and will be able to declare. If this undertaking prove a financial success, it is hoped to increase the capital stock and acquire additional tenements.

The Public Education Association (formed about two years ago) has this spring been carrying on a course of public lectures delivered in the school-houses in different parts of the city. They are designed especially for the parents of the children in the poorer quarters, and are intended to be both interesting and instructive. They are something on the plan of the public lectures so successful in New York City. A committee of the association is making an investigation into the sanitary conditions of the public schools, and expects to publish their report within a few weeks. The association is helping, by influence and active work of individual members, in maintaining the summer schools and playgrounds.

The Rhode Island Nursery Association has been in existence for fourteen years, but within the past three years it has entirely changed its method of work. It has given up all attempts of providing an institutional home for children, and now devotes itself to providing homes in private families where the board is paid in whole or in part by the association. It confines its work entirely to children under three years of age.

Stamp-savings work has recently been started in the public schools of Pawtucket and Central Falls. The Slater Trust Company bears the expense of providing stamps and books, and acts as a redemption agency. The superintendent of schools says there has been great interest among the children in the introduction of the stamps; and, when they were placed on sale last Monday, there was a lively demand for them.

Other Philanthropic Work.— A social secretary engaged at the Shepard Department Store about fifteen months ago. The secretary considers that her most important work has been establishing a sick fund, looking after the health of the girls, and acting as a mediator between them and their employers. She has established a loan

library for the benefit of the employees, has helped them to form a club which meets weekly for social and literary purposes, and takes a very lively interest in securing whatever is necessary for those that are ill. The management of the store seems to consider it a success.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

BY ARCHDEACON EDMUND N. JOYNER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There are no developments whatever since my last year's report in matters of charity or correction in South Carolina. The reformatory, alluded to last year as having been provided by the General Assembly, has been launched; but there is no report yet of its doings.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

BY W. B. SHERRARD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Very little has occurred in the domain of charities and corrections the past year worthy of mention, except that the motto of "To the victor belong the spoils" has been applied to our state institutions.

The recent legislature made provision for the enlargement of the penitentiary, School for the Blind, Deaf-mute School, and for the completion and equipment of the School for Feeble-minded. With these improvements completed, our state will be thoroughly equipped to care for all classes of unfortunates.

TENNESSEE.

No report.

TEXAS.

BY REV. R. C. BUCKNER, D.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Texas has but little to report in addition to what has been previously stated.

There is a healthy growth in public sentiment in reference to the methods of correctional and charitable measures.

Additional appropriations have been made for the buildings and equipment of the colony of cottages for epileptics. The buildings and appointments, when completed, will be altogether creditable.

A bill was passed by the last legislature providing for a department for feeble-minded children, as an annex to the epileptic colony, and appropriating $15,000 for this purpose. The governor very wisely vetoed the bill. The appropriation was inadequate, and a school for feeble-minded should be nowhere near an asylum for epileptics.

Texas has a special farm for convicts suffering from or predisposed to pulmonary diseases. It is located and conducted with reference to their condition. The inmates take their exercise on the farm, principally in the cultivation of vegetables. The effects of the entire system on their health is regarded as almost marvellous by many people. They are remarkably healthy and contented. This department of our prison system is self-sustaining and every way satisfactory.

UTAH.

BY GRACE M. PADDOCK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The last legislature passed the following reformatory measures: a bill making it a misdemeanor to sell intoxicating liquors to an idiot or insane person or to allow any such person or a minor in a place where intoxicating liquors are sold; a law prohibiting slot-machines or any other device for gambling or indecent pictures in any place of business; a bill providing that visitors to the state prison be charged an admission fee, the money to be used to provide a library for the prison; a law prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors within ten miles of an Indian reservation.

In the way of new organizations a Home Finding Society has been organized for the purpose of finding homes for destitute children. The Rescue Home for Women in Salt Lake City has been dropped because the association was unable to rent a house, the people refusing to rent their houses to them for the purpose. This charity had been kept up for four or five years, and those interested in reform were sorry to see it dropped. In their last report the board of directors of the State Insane Asylum ask that some action be taken to prevent idiots and feeble-minded persons being sent to the asylum, as they cannot be cured and become permanent

charges. There is no provision made for this class in Utah, and the need is very great. They also recommend that the criminal insane be not received, but cared for in a suitable annex to the state prison.

The State Reform School reports some advances in manual training. The boys are being taught carpentry and shoemaking by practical instructors. The School for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, report that they have lately erected a new hospital and sanitary building. A physical laboratory has been added to the apparatus of the school. Classes in barbering and blacksmithing have been established.

VERMONT.

BY REV. J. EDWARD WRIGHT, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

I have nothing to report for Vermont this year in the line of "important changes, consummated or pending, . . . relative to the correctional and charitable agencies." Existing agencies were sustained, and in several cases somewhat improved by our legislature last fall; but no important changes were made.

VIRGINIA.

BY WILLIAM FRANCIS DREWRY, M.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

To Virginia belongs the distinction of being the pioneer state in organized public charity.

The first hospital in this country for the reception of idiots, lunatics, and persons of insane and disordered minds, was opened in 1773 at Williamsburg. In 1812 the first school for the deaf in America was begun near Petersburg by Colonel William Bolling, a descendant of Pocahontas. The state organized in 1870 the first asylum in America exclusively for the colored insane. The first negro reformatory in the world was established in Virginia in 1897. These are glories of the past to be proud of, but the new century finds the old commonwealth filled with great expectations for the future.

With improvements in other lines of human progress will doubtless come enlargement and betterment in some respects in our

present system of public and private benevolence and correction. The purpose, however, of this report is simply to review briefly the present status of our charitable and penal institutions, some of which we point to with pride, while others are reflections upon the state's reputation.

State Hospitals and the Insane.— Virginia has four hospitals for the insane,— three for white patients and one for colored. Though lacking in some of the more modern equipments, these institutions are substantial structures and very well fitted up generally, and are doing grand work in the humane care and treatment of the insane.

The proportion of insane to the entire population is 1 to 600. *No insane are kept in any of the jails and poorhouses.*

Last fall an additional building was completed at the Southwestern Hospital at Marion, for 100 patients; and at the Central Hospital, near Petersburg, a building for 175.

Public sentiment is and has always been decidedly favorable to *state care, and supervision of all the insane.* There are no private or local institutions in the state for the insane.

Through the earnest and persistent efforts of the medical superintendents of the hospitals, several important revisions were made by the legislature of 1899–1900 in the "lunacy laws" of the state. The most important law enacted was that regulating the commitment of the insane. The commission to examine and adjudge one insane is now composed of a judge or a magistrate and two practising physicians. This is in keeping with the modern advanced ideas of insanity as a disease.

In accordance with another provision of the revised statute the superintendents and the presidents of the boards of directors met last summer, and took steps looking to co-operation and uniform system in the management of the hospitals. Questions of administration, finances, accounting, economics, care and treatment of patients, preparing statistics, etc., were discussed with a view to making every possible improvement in existing methods. These meetings will be held annually.

There has been a revival of efforts to give more employment to the patients. Work rather than mere amusement is sought. At the Central Hospital, broom-making, mattress-making, and other industries were carried on extensively during the past winter. The super-

intendents of some of the hospitals are making determined efforts to have constructed properly equipped industrial shops. The necessary funds is the only obstacle in the way.

For the last fiscal year the state paid $361,132 on account of the insane.

No provision has yet been made for sane epileptics, though public sentiment favorable to such a humane project has been steadily growing for the past six years. The bill providing for the establishment of a colony, and which received such flattering support in the legislature a year ago, will be introduced again next winter. The general impression is that the bill will then go through both Houses. It will be remembered that at the last session it passed the Senate, but failed to get to the House in time to be voted upon. At the Central Hospital buildings have been constructed within the past five years for the exclusive accommodation of insane epileptics.

The feeble-minded and idiots have not yet received help from the state; and no special effort has been made in behalf of these classes, notwithstanding they are much in need of care and protection.

The institution for the deaf and the blind, established in Staunton about sixty years ago, seems to be in a flourishing condition.

More than two hundred pupils, all white, are being educated there. This year the school receives from the state $45,200. At the Eye and Ear Infirmary in Richmond much charitable work is done. The state contributed last year $1,338 to this charity.

One of the most commendable public charities in the state is the Confederate Soldiers' Home, where 270 needy old veterans are being comfortably cared for in the declining years of their lives. The total number of beneficiaries admitted from the organization of the home, in 1884, to the present is 1,400. During that time $498,600 has been expended in property, maintenance, etc., $343,000 of which was appropriated by the state. The state now makes an annual appropriation of $36,000 (including $1,000 to the Ladies' Auxiliary), and the city of Richmond $750 for the support of the institution. The sum of $125,373 was paid last year from the public treasury in pensions to disabled old soldiers outside of the home, and to needy widows and orphans of deceased veterans. The various Camps and the Daughters of the Confederacy also contribute materially to these causes.

In penology Virginia is not abreast of the advances of the times.

The penitentiary as a paying investment is a success, the net annual profits to the state being nearly $50,000.

The institution is ably managed from financial, administrative, and executive points of view: otherwise it is a disgrace to humanity, a blot upon the escutcheon of the state. The old structure is in the main antiquated. Surrounded by lofty walls which shut out pure air from close, stuffy cells, already badly ventilated and overladen with foul air, sanitary arrangements of the crudest character, the prisoners crowded to such an extent that it is impossible for them to have as much as two hundred cubic feet of fresh air each per hour, the average cell space per man not exceeding one hundred and seventy-five cubic feet, many cells infested with vermin, the condition beggars description.

A vigorous, wide-spread, public agitation of the condition of the penitentiary, and a demand for speedy improvement, will soon, I am confident, lead to the building of a new structure on modern principles of decency, sanitation, and humanity. At the recent extra session of the legislature a competent commission was appointed to thoroughly examine the prison and recommend the best methods of remedying the existing evils and defects. Many needed reforms will doubtless be instituted. It is to be hoped that the reformatory ideas of dealing with convicts will soon get a firmer footing here. The parole system has been in part put into practice, and I am informed that the plan works admirably. Last year 228 prisoners were granted conditional pardons, and of these only one has been returned.

The state farm, where about three hundred prisoners are daily employed in outdoor work, is, to my mind, the most commendable feature of the institution. The total number of convicts under supervision is about 1,600, or, approximately, 1 to every 1,200 of the entire population. Negroes constitute 1,264, and white 280, of the penitentiary population. There are only 2 white women and 58 colored women.

Virginia has clung rather too closely to custom and tradition in the matter of construction of her jails and in the management of those confined therein. Comparatively few of the cities and counties have jails constructed on modern or correct ideas of sanitation, light, heat, ventilation, hygiene, etc. The system of separate confinement and classification has not received proper attention. Frequently prisoners of every conceivable type are thrown promis-

cuously together in the same quarters. The hardened criminal, the youthful offender, the vile and depraved, the inebriate, the desperado, an important witness, the vagrant, the violator of some trivial city ordinance, the insane and demented, are too often herded together.

It is difficult to estimate the evil wrought upon young prisoners and the lesser offenders of the law by those hardened in crime or given to the most revolting immoral practices. Truly such places are "schools for crime." The chief needs of our jails and prisons are apparent,— more modern construction, reform in the methods of classification of the prisoners, more humane treatment, aims at reformation instead of mere punishment of the inmates, a more thorough inspection, and competent supervision by the authorities. Under charge of the State Prison Association the Industrial School near Richmond, for wayward white boys under the age of sixteen, is doing great good. There are now 144 inmates at the Reformatory under strict but kind discipline. Last year the state contributed $14,460 to the maintenance of this institution. The Negro Reform School, also near Richmond, though a comparatively new institution, has made a good record. One hundred bad or criminal boys are now there. The state paid last year 4,192 toward the construction and support of this institution. At both of these reformatories various industries are carried on, and the boys taught trades, etc. In one or two of the larger cities there are workhouses for vagrants. Richmond leads in this respect.

In almost every city and county there are almshouses or hospitals where the poor, the emergency cases, etc., are cared for and treated at the expense of the respective cities and counties. In many instances these institutions are in good condition and well managed. Some, however, need improvement, enlarging, etc. In almost every city there are hospitals, supported mainly by private subscription, where the poor may receive medical and surgical attention and be cared for free of charge. Some of the railroad companies maintain hospitals for their sick and injured employees.

The state is derelict in its duty to its helpless little ones. Private charity, however, holds out its hand to them. The various Christian denominations and some secret societies — the Masons particularly — look well to the proper care and protection of orphan and destitute children. The Societies for Prevention of Cruelty to

Children, the day nurseries, and free kindergartens, in Richmond and elsewhere, are doing much toward aiding and caring for dependent children.

The Baptists have an orphanage, located at Salem, with the capacity for one hundred or more children, sustained by that denomination throughout the state. The Presbyterians have a school for orphans at Fredericksburg, which is supported by their churches of the state.

Under the auspices of the Virginia Methodist Conference (South) a large orphanage will soon be established in the city of Richmond for the benefit especially of orphans of deceased ministers of that denomination.

A Children's Home Society has been organized, with headquarters in Richmond, under the superintendence of Rev. W. J. Maybee. Already the society has accomplished much good in placing quite a number of neglected, abused, and homeless children in families where they will be kindly treated and educated.

Had I the time, I might enumerate other private charity organizations in the state, and review the work they are doing for afflicted humanity.

Last August a few citizens from different sections of the state met at Marion and organized a State Association of Charities and Correction. The membership will be extended to every county, town, and city in the state. It is the purpose to join together, by representation in this body, all the charitable and penal institutions in the state.

Among the objects of the association are the awaking of a deeper interest in organized charity, the promotion of a philanthropic spirit, stimulation of greater effort in charitable work, inspection of the jails, poorhouses, and public institutions generally, collection of statistics, and the education of the public mind to a better appreciation and understanding of the requirements of the dependent and delinquent classes.

WASHINGTON.

BY THOMAS P. WESTENDORF, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The last session of the legislature devoted much time to the consideration of reform measures, and several good laws were adopted.

The slot machines and the cigarette were made almost impossible luxuries, and vice was made to feel the sturdy growth of a high moral sentiment in this young state.

Several attempts were made to establish a reformatory for young men beyond the age limit for commitment to the Reform School. A bill was also introduced to raise this limit from sixteen to eighteen years. These efforts were defeated, and it is thought that it will be possible to establish a reformatory department in the penitentiary for the class of young criminals who are beyond the age limit for commitment to the Reform School.

The State Board of Audit and Control, which has been in charge of the state institutions for the past four years, was superseded by the State Board of Control. The old board consisted of five members who served without pay, except the travelling auditor, who was allowed $2,000 per annum. The new board has but three members, each receiving 2,000 and expenses. The law requires that they shall visit the institutions regularly once a month, and devote their whole time to the management of the affairs of the two insane hospitals, the penitentiary, the Reform School, the Soldiers' Home, and the School for the Defective Youth. The travelling auditor of the old board has been made chairman of the new board, and there will be very little change in the methods employed. Owing to the rapid increase of population in this state, it will be necessary to enlarge nearly all of its institutions; and provision was made for much of this work.

A serious state of affairs has been brought about by the recent discovery of a flaw in the amendatory act which provided that all executions should be at the penitentiary. It is hinted that in consequence at least ten condemned murderers will escape punishment. The governor has been asked to call an extra session of the legislature to repeal the act before it becomes a law.

WEST VIRGINIA.

BY THOMAS C. MILLER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

In presenting a brief report of humane and corrective work in West Virginia, I can state that we are making commendable progress. The Home for Incurables at Huntington has been found inadequate

for the accommodation of this class of dependants; and the legislature at its recent session provided for an additional building to cost $80,000. The Girls' Industrial School at Salem will also be enlarged, and a new building at the Reform School for Boys is under way.

At the two asylums, at Weston and Spencer, improvements are being made; and modern methods in the way of bakeries, laundries, and kitchen outfits have been introduced. The hygienic conditions at both of these hospitals have been very much improved in the last few years.

An effort was made at the legislature to separate the deaf and dumb departments of the institution now located at Romney, but for lack of means provision was not made for this change. However, Governor White has very strong views on this subject, and will urge different locations for these two classes at the next legislature.

One of the most commendable things characterizing our benevolent work in West Virginia is the establishing of the Davis Child's Transitory Shelter in Charleston, under the auspices of the Children's Home Society. Rev. D. W. Comstock, D.D., is the founder and president. So far, homes in good families have been found for 160 destitute children. Senator Davis has certainly done a good work in establishing this shelter and in providing so liberally for its support. Dr. Comstock issues a little monthly paper called the *Cedar Bird*, which tells much of interest in connection with this benevolent work. He is to be assisted hereafter by Rev. Frank Heydenburk and his wife, who will have their headquarters at Grafton, and will be in charge of the northern section of the state, es pecially along the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad.

Our penitentiary has not only become self-sustaining, but is turning money into the state treasury. Reform methods are being used very effectively. Harsher means, to a large extent, have been dispensed with in dealing with the inmates. A library of several hundred volumes has been collected, and a night school carried on for the benefit of the prisoners. It is surprising to see the progress that some young men who could neither read nor write have made within a few weeks.

Upon the whole, we think West Virginia is making good progress in the effort to solve these humanitarian problems.

WISCONSIN.

BY HON. JAMES E. HEG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature is in session at present, but no bills have yet been passed of especial importance to the state institutions. Bills have been introduced and will probably become laws, placing a woman on the State Board of Control, women regents on the State University Board and Normal School Board, also authorizing the appointment of women factory inspectors.

An amendment is likely, also, to the law sending children to the State Public School, whereby those under three years of age may be committed to the care of this state institution. This proposition is warmly opposed by the Children's Home Society and orphan societies generally.

The insane of the state are reported all cared for and in excellent manner. One new asylum has been erected at Trempealeau, and another is under construction at Waupaca.

A cottage for epileptics has been errected in connection with the Home for Feeble-minded at Chippewa Falls. It has a capacity of 240, and is already well filled.

There have been no changes in the *personnel* of the heads of the state institutions since the last report, except at the State Hospital for the Insane, where Dr. W. B. Lyman has resigned to enter private practice at Eau Claire. At the State Reformatory, Superintendent James E. Heg has tendered his resignation, and will become superintendent of the new State Reformatory in New Jersey.

The legislative committees reported favorably and unanimously on the appropriation bills for maintenance of the state institutions, aggregating $800,000 submitted by the State Board of Control.

The trustees and superintendents of the county insane asylums have formed an organization, and will meet twice a year for discussion of subjects pertaining to their field of work.

WYOMING.

BY F. B. SHELDON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The state of Wyoming, with its absence of thickly settled communities, has not found it necessary as yet to do much along the

line of organized charity. The state maintains a hospital at Rock Springs, where patients of all classes are given the best medical and surgical treatment at very moderate rates. The several counties of the state send to this hospital their indigent patients, and pay a nominal rate for their care and treatment from county funds. Special rates are made for the employees of mining companies, railroad companies, and the like. The earnings of the institution are not sufficient for its support, and the deficiency is made up from a special state tax levy for that purpose. During the past year an addition has been built to the hospital, including a finely equipped operating-room for surgical use.

The State Hospital for the Insane at Evanston is also being enlarged this year to provide more room and greater comfort for the inmates. This is filling a long-felt want, as the constantly increasing numbers have crowded the present quarters to such an extent as to render them uncomfortable and to some degree, perhaps, unhealthy.

The Wyoming Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Cheyenne is also becoming somewhat crowded in its limited quarters; and the increasing age and infirmities of the veterans of the Civil War made it incumbent upon the last legislature to provide for a hospital building to be built and operated in connection with the home. This building will be built during the coming two years.

The history of our state penitentiary is that, while Wyoming was yet a territory, provision was made for the erection of a penitentiary building at Rawlins; and considerable money was appropriated and spent in the construction of the building. Upon admission to the Union, however, the United States donated to the state its penitentiary located at Laramie; and this property has been used by the state up to the present time for penitentiary purposes. In the mean time the work upon the Rawlins building has lagged somewhat, and has never been entirely completed. Provision was made, however, by the recent legislature for putting the Rawlins institution in condition for occupancy and for the removal of prisoners thereto. The present year will witness this change. Much pains are being taken to place the new quarters in good sanitary condition, with all comforts and conveniences possible, and to make them secure and capable of properly restraining the convicts.

The Big Horn Hot Springs, near Thermopolis, have been placed

under the control of the State Board of Charities and Reform, and forever set aside for the treatment and care of diseases and for sanitary and charitable purposes. These springs are remote from the railroad, but undoubtedly possess great curative qualities which will eventually make them famous. A special tax levy is authorized for the improvement and preservation of this property; and steps are being taken to carry out provisions of the legislature concerning these waters.

All of the above-mentioned institutions are under the supervision and control of the State Board of Charities and Reform, which is composed of the following *ex-officio* members, the Governor, Secretary of State, State Auditor, State Treasurer, and State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Recent legislation relative to correctional and charitable matters has all been along the line of providing for the changes and improvements mentioned in this report, and has been governed in all cases by a careful consideration of the needs of the institutions and with due regard to economy in the administration of their affairs.

CUBA.

BY JEROME B. CLARK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The first adequate effort toward the organization of the charities in Cuba was made in February, 1900, when Major E. St. J. Greble, assistant adjutant-general, United States Volunteers, was appointed Superintendent of Charities for the entire island. To his ability and energy are entirely due all the good results that have been attained. Up to the date of this appointment the charitable institutions had been in charge of the various military commanders of the four districts into which the island was divided, and an effort was made toward the inspection of all institutions who received aid from the government.

In April, 1900, Mr. Homer Folks, of New York City, came to Havana to lend his experience in starting the organization of the charities of the island; and the civil order defining this work, which was signed by General Wood on July 7, 1900, was largely due to the result of his efforts.

This order provided for a Board of Charities, to consist of eleven members, five of them to be appointed at large, and six provincial

members, one from each province of the island. This board held its first meeting Jan. 10, 1901. Provisions were made for a Training School for Boys, a Training School for Girls, a Reform School for Boys, and a Reform School for Girls. All of these institutions are now in successful operation, the Training School for Boys having been recently opened at Santiago de las Vegas. This latter institution will also have an agricultural college and farms in connection with the school, two hundred acres of land having been purchased for that purpose. The Training School for Girls is located in Havana. The Reform School for Boys was formerly in Havana, and known as the San José Reform School. It has since been moved to Guanajay, and bids fair to be a model reform school.

The Reform School for Girls is at Aldecoa, near Havana. The Sisters of the Good Shepherd are in charge, under state supervision.

A bureau for placing children with families, and for their inspection and supervision, has been established. Reports show that there have been 329 applications from families who wished to take children; 290 children have been placed out; and 240 remain at this date under the supervision of the department.

At the time of the organization of the department there were in existence many so-called orphan asylums in all parts of the island, which were little more than shelters for the many children who during the war and after its close were gathered up and saved from starvation in the fields and cities. They had been started by charitable societies from the United States in connection with the Cuban municipal authorities; but, as funds grew low, they all came to the state for support. It was decided to break up as many of these asylums as possible, and return the children to their relatives or place them out in families. There have been over thirty broken up. Over 1,000 children have been returned to their relatives: the others were either placed out or transferred to one of the state schools.

All of the insane of the island are cared for at Mazzora, where provision has been made for their treatment.

The lepers of the island are cared for in the San Lazaro Hospitals in Havana and Santa Clara.

The aged and chronic cases are at present distributed throughout the island in private asylums, whose object is to care for such people, the state paying a monthly per capita for each inmate whom they send.

In the city of Havana the reconcentrados and destitute were cared for, immediately after the war, in several government buildings. These people were furnished rations for nearly two years, and were given shelter. Consequently, they made no effort to find work, and were fast drifting into the pauper class. The department undertook to return them to the country towns from which most of them originally came, and to find work for them. In this way the state was relieved of the care of over 400 persons.

In connection with the general office of the department, workshops were established for supplying state institutions, hospitals, and asylums with clothes, bed linen, pillows, and other supplies, which can be made cheaper in Havana than elsewhere in the island. There are two women employed by the department to cut the material and to prepare the work, which is given out to destitute women applying for employment, and paid for by the piece. Employment has also been furnished to a large number of destitute men and boys, who are given work at sawing and splitting wood; and the wood is afterward sold to the state institution and other purchasers.

A large supply of surgical instruments were donated to the department by some of the large hospitals in the United States, these instruments being perfectly good, but too antiquated for the use of these advanced institutions. These instruments were distributed among a number of the smaller hospitals of the island, which up to that time had been almost entirely devoid of any such appliances.

Up to the time of the organization of the department there had never been any trained nurses in Cuba. There have since been established training schools for nurses in all of the largest hospitals of the island, these schools being under the charge of an American trained nurse in each institution.

The first dispensary for free service to the sick poor was opened in Havana in November last, and has relieved the hospitals of many cases, especially women and children.

Supplementary Report: Cuba.

Dr. Julio San Martin, president of the board of managers of the Reform School for Boys at Guanajay, says: "The Reform School is a new institution, taking the place of the old *Asilo de San José*,

which was a real prison, where the children were tortured and made to work like slaves. The Reform School is finely located upon elevated ground. There are workshops for shoemaking, tailoring, blacksmithing, carpentering, and bricklaying. The boys are also taught agriculture. The school contains about 420 children; but of these about 200, who are not delinquent, will be removed to the new industrial school at Santiago de las Vegas."

Dr. Enrique Diago, superintendent of Municipal Hospital No. 1, Havana, reports that this hospital has been modernized and provided with a complete system of sewers, water-closets, baths, etc.; that it has separate wards for suspected insane, and another for tuberculosis patients. The hospital has a capacity of 1,500, with an average of 430.

Dr. Emilio Martinez reports that the Tamayo Dispensary was organized to give free medical assistance to the poor and to prevent the abuses of excessive charges by druggists. The services of the dispensary are restricted to those who are considered really poor. Visits are made to sick poor in their homes. In the first three months of 1901, 2,425 patients were cared for, chiefly women and children. The dispensary is under the charge of the Department of Charities.

Dr. Sanchez Agramont, director of the *Casa de Beneficencia y Maternidad*, reports that this institution receives abandoned children of both sexes, feeds them in the most approved manner, and directs their physical, moral, and intellectual development. The institution still maintains a "turn-cradle,"— a pivotal apparatus, cylindrical in shape, placed in a solitary spot, and so arranged that the moment a foundling is placed in it a watchman constantly on duty near the place, is notified by a system of bells. Two objects are realized,— secrecy in regard to the person abandoning the waif and the preservation of a future useful member of society.

Dr. J. M. Pla, president of the board of trustees for the Hospital for Insane in Cuba, and Dr. L. Alvarez Crice, superintendent, report that the hospital was founded in 1825 by Bishop Espada. It is situated twelve miles from Havana, and has 429 acres of land. It has a population of 716 patients. Under Governor-general Brooke a complete system of sewerage, with adequate bathing facilities, laundry, and kitchen, was established. Steps were taken to provide an abundant supply of good water. Restrictions and

close confinement have been abolished, and some excellent buildings established.

MEXICO.

BY JOSÉ F. GODAY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Mexican government encourages everything tending to advance existing charities and to foster new ones. The Department of the Interior, at whose head is General Manuel González Cosio, has done all in its power in that direction; and so we find that the leading federal charitable institutions in the City of Mexico, and elsewhere in the republic, are in a most flourishing condition.

Of these let me first cite the Asylum of the Poor at the capital, one of the earliest institutions of its kind established on this continent, whose history is well worthy of a passing reference. It is related that on the spot where this asylum was afterward erected there stood in 1760 some miserable huts inhabited by very, very poor people. One day a benevolent priest, Fernando Ortiz Cortés, was passing by, and heard the cries of a child. The wailing was renewed from time to time, until it became so persistent that the priest entered the hut, and there discovered that the child's complaint was caused by hunger. The emaciated and pinched little face, lying across the knees of the starved dead mother, appealed strongly to the holy man's kind and charitable impulses; and he vowed that thereafter no human being should weep from hunger at that spot. Devoting himself assiduously to the raising of funds, he was able to establish the asylum in September, 1763. Thus it was that the piteous cries of an infant brought about the organization of one of our worthiest institutions. At the present time it gives shelter to about 900 inmates.

The Orphan Asylum of Mexico City is another noble charity, founded in 1767 by Archbishop Lorenzana, with alms he collected. It now provides for over 300 children.

Of recent institutions I may mention the National School for the Deaf and Dumb, which was definitely organized under the administration of our great patriot, President Benito Juarez, in 1861, and which now has 800 pupils; the National School for the Blind, established in 1871; and the Correctional School for Boys, opened in September, 1881. There are also at the capital

another correctional school for boys, an industrial institute for men, and one for women.

Of hospitals under federal aid we have several, the oldest dating back to the time of the conqueror, Herman Cortez, long before hospitals could have been established in the United States. At present a general hospital is being finished. This splendid institution will have 900 beds, will comprise wards for men, women, and children, and a separate one for infectious diseases, and will contain all the latest improvements and appliances.

The National Loan Office is another institution to which passing reference may be made, as its aims are noble and its work highly creditable. It enables the poor to obtain loans on pledges at almost nominal rates of interest. An idea of its importance may be obtained when it is known that in 1899 it loaned over $3,000,000 in 500,000 transactions.

As to insane asylums, we have two at the capital; but, the buildings which they occupy being no longer suited to modern methods, a larger and thoroughly equipped institution of the kind is to be erected.

In the states of the Mexican Republic the observer will also find many charitable institutions. Hospitals, asylums, and correctional schools in great numbers are established in all the leading cities of the nation, and even in small municipalities. Some, like the lying-in and general hospitals of Puebla and the famous Hospicio of Guadalajara, give ample testimony as to the charitable impulses of the Mexican people.

Among private benefactions I cannot forego mentioning the Workingwomen's Home, established at the City of Mexico by Mrs. Diaz, the president's deservedly popular wife, who is beloved by all, and the charities now being put into successful operation under the will of the late Matias Romero, for many years Mexico's able and patriotic diplomatic representative in this country. Of the foreign colonies in our capital the American, Spanish, French, and Swiss residents have the best-equipped hospitals.

And here let me say that private benefaction is now well regulated and encouraged by a new law approved Dec. 19, 1899, establishing a board of charities, and which, I think, will meet some of the requirements and conditions discussed at these meetings regarding private charities.

The cursory remarks I have made regarding the charitable and correctional institutions in the Mexican Republic will convince you, I hope, that your work will find sympathetic appreciation in my country. We, as a nation, believe that home influence and home surroundings are the greatest and most potent factors in bringing about the happiness of our people. But we likewise know that public, charitable, and correctional institutions, without any distinction as to race, nationality, or religion, are necessary for the well-being of humanity.

With the cordial greetings of President Diaz and of my government, which gave me the pleasing mission which I am now performing, I wish you all success in your beneficent labors. These labors will undoubtedly be far-reaching in their effects, since they will serve to alleviate suffering and to ameliorate the condition of the poor. Their proper recognition in my country will contribute in a way to weld more firmly together through that noble and holy virtue — charity — the ties of friendship which happily bind our two sister republics.

IV.

Legislation concerning Charities.

SPECIAL FIELD OF NATIONAL LEGISLATION.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON LEGISLATION, BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM W. FOLWELL, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA.

The committee, whose report is now submitted, appears for the first time on the programme of the Conference.

A consultation of its members soon after appointment revealed a doubt on the part of some whether the Conference had not acted unadvisedly in forming a committee on legislation. It was suggested that the office of the Conference is to arouse and lead public sentiment,— to create a soil and an atmosphere in which legislative projects may generate and develop spontaneously. The Conference, by engaging in the framing of particular bills, and steering them to passage through legislative bodies, would abandon its wide sphere of influences to drop into narrow grooves of routine. Such associations may be all-powerful as organizations of influence, but weak and ridiculous when they undertake to compass their ends by the employment of power.

Your committee, however, do not believe themselves obliged to presume that in their appointment the Conference proposed to depart from its traditional policy.

It is much more reasonable to assume that the first intention was that inquiry should be made into the nature and range of past and existing legislation for the information of the Conference and the public. A report from year to year upon the laws proposed and enacted in the several states might serve a very useful purpose; and comparative studies, covering long periods, would be of high value. Successful experiments might become models for new measures, and failures in one quarter need not be repeated elsewhere.

If the investigations contemplated should at times fairly warrant a suggestion of an improvement, an extension, or a co-ordination of laws and administration, it could be easily tolerated. It may as well be frankly stated that your present committee will have occasion to avail themselves of such indulgence.

The ever-admirable preamble to the national constitution sums up the objects of its establishment. After naming the irreducible elements of government,— "justice," "domestic tranquillity," and "the common defence,"— it proposes "the general welfare." This phrase, ambiguous in terms, has been held to import the general well-being of the states as politically united, not of the people socially and distributively. Congress is not authorized to assume in the states those general police powers which secure the health and safety of the people and promote their culture. The protection of person and property, the family relations, the education of the young, highways, the public health, and the care of unfortunates are under the guardianship of and a charge upon the states. May the rights of the states to exercise all such powers and fulfil the obligations accordant therewith forever remain undiminished!

For a hundred years and more the several states have been engaged in legislation in regard to unfortunates. There is an enormous mass of statutes and ordinances relating to the punishment of crimes and misdemeanors, the care of the poor and infirm, the cure or custody of the insane, the idiotic, the inebriate, and the epileptic, and the education of defectives, to say nothing of accompanying "judge-made law." Under these laws innumerable experiments in administration have been made. Thousands of penal and charitable institutions dot the map, and an army of people do faithful service therein. These exist and serve in state groups, and present all varieties of organization and efficiency. There is a wilderness of systems, experiments, precedents, records, statistics,— all waiting, for what? You have anticipated the obvious answer. For collection, discussion, arrangement, and diffusion. "Wanted, then," we may advertise, "a clearing-house of charities and corrections for these United States, so long disunited in regard to these great interests."

Assembled under the shadow of the national capitol, may it not be both timely and appropriate for the Conference to inquire whether there is not a special field within which the national government may beneficently act without trespassing upon the domain of state activity?

The foundation for the answer to such a question has already been laid by the establishment of a policy consistent with the principle just announced of national co-ordination of state activity. A few examples will sustain this proposition.

Our great fundamental industry, agriculture, had been so developed, chiefly through the applications of science, by the middle of the last century that demands came from many quarters for a central agency, which should collect and distribute a huge mass of facts and truths known to exist, but practically inaccessible. This call, repeated and intensified, sounded above the war-drums of the civil war. A tardy Congress, by act of May 15, 1862, established the Bureau of Agriculture, declaring its object to be "to acquire and diffuse . . . useful information on subjects connected with agriculture in the most general and comprehensive sense of that word." The subsequent history and present status of this bureau are known to all.

The great struggle referred to was barely over when another interest of universal concern developed under state auspices, was demanding the beneficent interference of the national government in a similar way. By a law approved March 2, 1867, the Bureau of Education was created. The phrasing of the act is interesting, . . . "to collect facts and statistics showing the condition and progress of education in the several states, and to diffuse . . . information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching." The splendid series of publications emanating from the Bureau of Education, already indispensable to every student of pedagogy, bears ample testimony to the wisdom of Congress, and to the intelligence and industry of the gentlemen who have been charged with its administration.

It is a curious fact worth momentary notice that our first Commissioner of Education in these annual reports undertook to collect facts relating to the insane, the idiotic, and the deaf, dumb, and blind, and argued in the body of his first report that the culture, if not the maintenance, of these classes falls legitimately within the province of his bureau.

A few years later Congress was constrained to respond to a third call loud and clear for the same kind of service, and the Bureau of Labor was brought into being by act of June 27, 1884.

The function of this bureau as fixed by the law is to "collect information upon the subject of labor, its relation to capital, the hours

of labor, and the earnings of laboring men and women, and the means of promoting their material, social, intellectual, and moral prosperity." The contributions of this bureau, soon elevated into a department of the government, need no eulogy.

Further examples are unnecessary. In the instances cited we find the same phenomena,— a vast interest, of universal concern ; state and local initiative and administration ; a wide and deep felt need of co-ordination by means of a central bureau, and Congress under its constitutional power to promote the general welfare, creating the necessary bureaus. In all the cases, state initiative is not discouraged, but supplemented and assisted. It may be added that the national government is the only possible agency for such service. No other organization has the means, the motive, the prestige, or the power.

The argument of this report may now be rapidly concluded. That there is an appropriate field for national action promotive of general welfare will not be questioned. That such action has become traditional, resulting in an established policy, is not open to debate.

This Conference does not need to be informed that in the province of charities and corrections lies a vast, disordered mass of facts, experiments, successes, and failures, which need to be collected and marshalled for general use. Your committee, therefore, beg leave to announce it as their conclusion that there ought to be established here at the seat of the national government a Bureau of Charities and Corrections, with powers and functions substantially the same as those intrusted to the Departments of Agriculture, Labor, and Education (as it ought to be). To collect and diffuse information relating to charities and corrections would be the comprehending purpose of such a bureau. To elaborate before this body a scheme of details would be altogether superfluous, and to embody one in a statute should not be thought of. Let the general authority be given, particular subjects for investigation and report will present themselves spontaneously and in such number and variety that great discretion will be needed to prevent dissipation of effort and resources. Such propositions as the regulation of the inter-migration of paupers and criminals and the maintenance of a central office for the identification of criminals by the Bertillon method present themselves immediately.

One suggestion, however, may without impertinence be ventured, that the collection, interpretation, and publication of statistics should

from the outset be the leading specialty. The lack of trustworthy figures in the field of charities and corrections is known and felt by all who are conversant with it. Our highest authority in criminology has been obliged to state publicly that we have no statistics of crime of much value. Of judicial statistics we have in our country none. The case can be little better in any other quarter of the field. The inadequacy of the figures of the best of the federal censuses, based as they are on inquiries made at the end of a census year, and not on contemporary registration, is recognized and deplored by statisticians.

It would naturally become the office of the contemplated bureau to take the leading part in reforming the methods of observation, record, and return in all the statistical specialties within its province. Its obvious principle of action would be to invite the co-operation of state, local, and private agencies.

The success which has attended the corresponding work of the Bureau of Education is sufficient warrant for expecting like friendly contributions. Under American circumstances and temperament, attempts to compel the co-operation of agencies constitutionally independent would prove abortive. So dominant is the importance of the clearing-house feature of the proposed national bureau that it might be well if little else were undertaken in its earlier years. It would be easy to dissipate its resources on a multitude of investigations which immediately suggest themselves to any one who allows his mind to play around the subject.

Your committee, therefore, find in favor of a bureau rather than a Board of Charities and Corrections, or a "Board of Control."

While suggesting a limited and modest extension of the general welfare policy of the national government, your committee are aware that they are proposing a new step in a constitutional development which was never in the minds of the framers of our organic law, but which ought soon to enter the consciousness of the people.

It is an elementary theorem of plane geometry that through any three points in a plane not in a straight line a circumference can be drawn. In fact, the circle so bounded exists as a conception, whether the curve be physically drawn or not.

When Congress successively created the bureaus of Agriculture, Education, and Labor, it drew a charmed circle within which an indefinite number of similar intelligence offices may be instituted. One of them is the subject of present consideration.

The logic of our illustration and its application suggests the gradual development of a great system of national intelligence offices founded on a registration scheme carried on in and by the states. Into this system may be merged by federation existing bureaus, and at length, by amendment of the constitution, the decennial census long since swelled beyond the proportions contemplated by the grand convention.

In an ideal view of our Constitution as developed, the leading office of the national government should in the good time coming be the promotion of the general welfare by maintaining a great clearing house of information of common interest to the people. An intelligent and interested application of this ideal would hasten its possible realization.

WILLIAM W. FOLWELL, *Chairman.*
FRED H. WINES.
ROBERT W. HEBBERD.

V.

The Division of Work between Public and Private Charities.

SUBSIDIES.

BY THE COMMITTEE ON THE DIVISION OF WORK BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CHARITIES.

The title of this committee suggests a large number of important questions which the practical charity worker, the legislator, and the citizen are compelled constantly to consider. These questions may, perhaps, be conveniently grouped under three headings. First is the division of the *kinds* of work which should be done by either class of agencies and the question of the co-operation and methods of co-operation between public and private charitable agents. The second group of questions is that as to the mutual relations of public and private charitable agents in the matter of supervision and oversight. Here questions as to the advisability of the various types of State Boards of Charities, of State Charities Aid Associations, and committees of citizens as Visiting Boards, and some of the problems of charity organization have a place. The third group of questions is that which we have singled out for consideration at this session, and consists of those connected with subsidies from the public treasury to private charitable agencies. By subsidies we here understand any payments from the public treasury, whether of the nation, state, county, or any other political division, to charitable agencies not entirely controlled by the public, whether given in gross amount or as specific payments for specific services.

First we will consider the situation in the United States. Our returns are by no means complete; but from public documents, personal interviews, the reports of this and other conferences, and from a large number of private letters received in answer to our inquiries,

data have been secured which give, it is believed, a substantially true picture.

Beginning with the New England states, Maine makes liberal appropriations to various institutions for orphan or neglected children, contributes to three hospitals, and to a temporary home for women and children. Various municipalities support dispensaries, and there are doubtless some other minor cases of this policy.

Vermont, besides supporting its own institution for the insane, grants special appropriations for buildings, and a weekly per capita payment of $3.75 for each patient for the state in the Brattleboro retreat for the insane. It also pays $11,000 per year for the support of various defectives in private institutions outside the state. One city at least makes an annual appropriation for a hospital. All these expenditures have been gradually increasing.

New Hampshire makes a small appropriation for a deaf-mute mission, exempted this year the private Orphan's Home at Franklin from taxation, and by the law of 1895 required local authorities to support destitute children, either in private families or in asylums. Under this system the number of children thus supported has already reached about four hundred, and is increasing.

Massachusetts is almost steadily opposed to the granting of state aid to private institutions. A marked exception to this is found in an appropriation of $5,000, made in 1898 for the benefit of the New England Industrial School for Deaf-mutes, in the city of Beverly, and an appropriation of $2,000 in each of the years 1899 and 1900 to the same institution. A bill is before the legislature at this time (April), authorizing the city of Boston to appropriate money to the Carney Hospital.

In Connecticut the policy finds greater support. There are 25 state patients in the Hartford Retreat for the Insane, a private institution. Their support is provided for by contract with the state controller. Since 1888, pauper or indigent feeble-minded children are supported in the School for Imbeciles at Lakeville, a part of their support being met by the state and a part by the town from which they come. The number at present is about 180. About 260 wayward girls are maintained in the Industrial School for Girls at Middletown, for whose support the State pays $3 per week each. No state aid is granted to institutions for orphan or neglected children. The state makes appropriations biennially to almost all of the public

hospitals of the state. The state pays $200 per year for the support of the deaf, about 80 being in the American School at Hartford, and about 30 in the Mystic Oral School. About 65 blind persons are supported in two private institutions, the state paying at the rate of $350 per year each. Few of the cities contribute to private charities, the exceptions being Hartford, which makes an annual appropriation to the Protestant Orphan Asylum in that city; New Haven, which aids the Protestant Orphan Asylum and the Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum; and New Britain, which grants an annual appropriation to the General Hospital. In nearly every case the amount of these subsidies is steadily increasing.

Turning now to the group of Middle Western states, in Michigan the only instance is that of the maintenance of 7 insane persons, in a private asylum, under an old law. None have been committed, however, for years. In late years the D'Arcambal Home of Industry for discharged prisoners has once or twice received assistance from the state. A member of the State Board of Charities remarks that this was found to be a source of weakness to the institution, as private support was withdrawn. Several times applications for assistance have been made by other private institutions, but they were always defeated in the legislature.

In Ohio the principle of aid to private institutions has no state recognition. In a few counties, about six in number, aid is given to children's homes, the counties paying an agreed price for maintenance.

In Indiana the state pays no subsidies, but several minor instances of the policy are found in the county aid to private orphan asylums by means of per capita payments and in one or two cases in small appropriations by cities to private hospitals. Probably Indiana is as free from this practice as any state of its wealth and population in the country.

In Illinois the state legislature is forbidden by the Constitution to contribute to private charities. There are some instances of subsidies paid by cities or counties. The Industrial School Act permits the counties to pay $10 per month for children committed by the court. The city of Chicago gives $12,000 a year to the St. Vincent Orphanage, Cook County gives $12,000 to each of two industrial schools for boys, and $10,000 to each of two industrial schools for girls, a total of $56,000 yearly by the county. The Children's Home

and Aid Society receives $5,000 a year in per capita payments. In a number of other places in the state, industrial schools, children's aid societies, and hospitals are aided; and there are indications that the practice has been increasing in the last ten years.

In Minnesota, as a temporary policy only, the state boards crippled and deformed children in a private hospital, awaiting the time when the number of patients will justify the establishment of a state institution. Three cities pay small amounts each in aid of societies for the prevention of cruelty to children; and one county, the county in which St. Paul is located, pays a small amount to the Associated Charities for the work of investigating all applications for outdoor relief.

In North Dakota, in 1899, a number of the counties made liberal provisions to aid in the erection of a receiving home for the Children's Home Society, the amounts varying from $500 to $2,000 each; and city support also is given to the work of those societies.

In Kansas 26 institutions of various kinds are aided in the current year by small amounts, the aggregate given by the state legislature being $14,400. The amount has increased in the last two years. No instances of municipal aid were found.

In Nebraska the subsidy policy was at one time followed; but in the year 1891 the care of all the insane patients in the state was undertaken by the state directly. For a time an institution for dependent children was subsidized; but the arrangement being unsatisfactory, the state took full possession two years ago. If there are now any cases in the state, they are found in the cities or minor divisions.

In Colorado a private hospital at Pueblo receives a per diem payment from the various counties. A private institution for the feeble-minded receives like payment from the counties, this being also a temporary measure until the state is financially able to establish a school. In a number of mining towns, hospitals are aided by the local authorities; and in Denver the city indirectly, through the Associated Charities, assists some private charitable institutions. The policy, however, may be said to have almost no permanent hold in the state.

A number of other states in this section undoubtedly will show instances of this policy, but they are only of minor importance.

For the Southern states, only meagre data are at hand. In North Carolina, apparently, the state has gone farthest in the policy, there being appropriations by the legislature for Orphan Asylums conducted by the Masons and by the churches and for a Soldiers' Home, aggregating about $35,000 annually. Several of the cities contribute to the support of hospitals. The amounts have been steadily increasing in the last few years.

In Kentucky there are a few instances of city and county aid to hospitals and humane societies, but none by the State legislature.

Tennessee is almost free from this policy, the Tennessee Industrial School being the only institution receiving state aid.

In Louisiana, while the state grants no subsidies, the city of New Orleans contributes about $30,000 in all to 31 different institutions. We may only infer that these few instances fairly represent the situation in the South; and they would indicate that, while the policy is as yet in its infancy, it gives promise of a vigorous growth.

We turn now to the Far Western states and those of the Pacific Coast.

In Indian Territory and Arizona the practice is not found.

In New Mexico there are a few cases, but it is not clear whether they are more than mere temporary expedients.

In Washington no cases of the policy appear.

In Oregon of late the policy seems to be finding support. Beginning with 1889, at each biennial session of the legislature excepting two, the amount of aid granted to orphans' homes and certain institutions for the destitute has been increased. Beginning with $15,000, the total in 1895 had reached $36,500. In 1897 none was granted, but in 1899 $5,000 was granted to one institution, a Home for the Friendless. In 1901 the total appropriation was again increased to $35,000, mostly in form of a per capita payment to various orphan asylums.

In California the one notable case of state aid is found in the subsidizing of orphan asylums, $100 being paid for each orphan and $75 for each half-orphan kept in private institutions. This number has been steadily increasing. The amount of the subsidy, which was in 1880 $58,000, has now reached $400,000 annually, requiring thus a biennial appropriation of over three-quarters of a million. Formerly the state aided in a similar manner the aged dependants; but, their number and the expenditure increasing, opposition was aroused, and

the law was repealed five years ago. A few cases of municipal subsidies are found, San Francisco having been required by the legislature to pay a relief society $5,000 a year; but this has been recently withdrawn, whether legally has not been decided.

We return now to the group of Middle states, composed of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and the District of Columbia. New York State gives aid to private institutions for delinquent children, in one instance under a special law, and has done so since 1824. It also aids regularly one institution for the instruction of the blind and all the institutions, some eight or ten in number, for deaf-mutes. The state is prohibited by the Constitution from giving aid to any but these classes of private institutions. The cities and towns make large payments to the institutions for children which are more or less of a reformatory character, to hospitals and dispensaries, to a few homes for the aged, and in some cases to fresh air charities. Outside of New York City, probably little aid is given except to institutions for children, which receive aid in all parts of the state, and to hospitals, which are subsidized in a number of places. Approximately, the amount of these annual appropriations is as follows: contributed by the state directly to private institutions, some $235,000; voted by county supervisors, $635,000; paid by cities, towns, or villages, about $2,775,000,—a total of nearly three and three-quarter million dollars, of which over $2,000,000 is paid to institutions for the support of dependent children. These amounts have been almost steadily increasing, but within the last few years an aroused public sentiment and various measures of prevention have somewhat checked their advance.

In New Jersey the Constitution of the state prohibits the legislature from subsidizing any private charity; and the counties subsidize very rarely, and only as temporary convenience.

In Pennsylvania, however, the policy is thoroughly established. The amounts granted by the legislature are greater than in any other state of the Union, some 133 private institutions scattered in every portion of the state being beneficiaries. Besides these there are a number of so-called "semi-state institutions," whose governing boards are to a greater or less degree independent of public appointment. Of the total amount of something over $7,000,000 a year appropriated by the legislature at its biennial session, about $2,500,000 goes to strictly state institutions, about $1,200,000 to semi-state insti-

tutions, and about $3,500,000 to private institutions. These amounts have been steadily increasing despite the opposition and protests of many citizens. What amounts are granted by counties or cities it is impossible to ascertain, but doubtless it would be no inconsiderable sum.

In Delaware an appropriation is made by the legislature to support feeble-minded children at Elwyn, Penn. The Ferris Reform School, a private institution in Newcastle County, is partially supported by a $5,000 appropriation by the Levy Court. A small appropriation is made to the Delaware Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, and to a Day Nursery under the management of the Episcopal Church.

In Maryland the subsidy policy has taken on large proportions. The state legislature appropriates to institutions for delinquent youths, for destitute and neglected youths, homes for the friendless, destitute adults, hospitals, and for various classes of defectives, about $191,000 at its biennial session; while in the city of Baltimore, for various classes, about $185,000 annually has been the amount of recent appropriations. In both cases the amount tended rapidly to increase; and quite recently, public attention becoming aroused, measures were taken in the hope of preventing further advance.

In the District of Columbia the subsidy policy had become thoroughly established by the year 1880, almost entirely in aid of institutions for orphan and neglected children and for the sick. The amounts increased almost steadily from 1880 up to 1895, when the effects of new measures of precaution that had been adopted began to make themselves felt. The total amount of these appropriations in any year falls little short of $200,000.

From this survey we conclude that in the New England States the system is not of great extent; and, where the method is followed, it is chiefly because of the small number of dependants. The subsidies are usually given in the most business-like way by specific payments and frequently to institutions outside the state. Massachusetts is the most nearly free from the practice, while Maine and Connecticut follow it the most. Public sentiment has not become strongly defined on the subject, excepting in Massachusetts, where it is strongly opposed.

In the Middle, Western, and North-western states the instances found of state aid are relatively unimportant; and those of county and

city aid, though somewhat greater, are still not numerous nor of great significance. In the matter of aid by the state probably Kansas stands first as to amount, while in county or city aid Illinois is in the lead. In these two states and some others, public sentiment is undefined, while in the greater number of the states of this group there is a very strong and growing sentiment in favor of the abandonment of every trace of the subsidy system.

In the Southern states, so far as heard from, North Carolina gives the most state aid, though the amount is still small. Nowhere in the South has the practice any great development, and there is little public sentiment one way or the other. The probability is that, as the charitable work of the South increases, it will tend to take this form; and subsidizing may become a very serious question unless the experience of other states serves to forewarn against it.

On the Pacific coast, Oregon is granting subsidies of large amount relative to her resources; but sentiment is wavering, with indications that the opposite policy will prevail. The practical charity workers in the city of Portland have continued to use their influence against it. California, in its subsidies to orphan asylums, presents the most striking example west of the Alleghanies of the abuse of this system. Public sentiment in general is apathetic on the subject. Those directly connected with the management of the institutions are vigorously resenting any suggestion of change; while criticisms of the practice, beginning with a small body of citizens and active charity workers awake to the evils, is spreading rapidly through the public. The present methods cannot possibly continue.

The group of states just west of the Hudson and around the Chesapeake Bay may be called the storm centre of this system of subsidies. It is difficult to arrange these states in the order of importance that subsidies hold in the entire charitable system; but New Jersey is practically free, and Delaware does little in this way. New York City furnishes the greatest single example; but, relative to the whole volume of its charitable interests, subsidies are not so great as in Pennsylvania, the District of Columbia, or in Maryland.

Public sentiment in every case appears to be growing in opposition to the practice. This is shown in the District of Columbia by the action of Congress in appointing investigating committees nearly ten years ago, which resulted in the establishment of the office of Commissioner of Charities, to which Dr. Amos G. Warner was appointed

in 1891. It appears likewise in the reports of the successive commissioners, excepting those of the commissioner in office between 1893 and 1897 who was in favor of continuing the *status quo.* It appears in the establishment of a Board of Children's Guardians in 1892, and the strong attitude it has taken in favor of limiting the practice. It appears likewise in the recent establishment of the Board of Charities and the policy that it has been pursuing. In Maryland the growth of this opposition sentiment is shown by the strong report in December, 1897, of a special commission on the care of certain city poor appointed by the City Council of Baltimore, by the attitude of the Supervisors of City Charities of Baltimore, in their first annual report in 1900; by the expression of such men as the president of this Conference, Mr. John M. Glenn, who gave his views in an interview in the Baltimore *News* of March 14, 1898; Hon. Ashley M. Gould, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the legislature in 1898, whose paper read at the State Conference of Charities in 1899 attracted much attention; Hon. Ferdinand C. Latrobe, chairman of the same committee in 1900. It is shown also by the establishment in 1900 of the Board of State Aid and Charities, whose special business it has been made to supervise, inspect, and report on the subsidized institutions. The situation in Pennsylvania is perhaps the least satisfactory. The newspapers, it is true, speak of "the biennial discussion" of the subject, and recognize in editorials what they call "the pauperizing effect of the practice" on private institutions; but the practice of taking in annually more and more institutions, thus attempting to placate every portion of the state and every interest, and the general political situation in the state, have given small encouragement to the growth of an intelligent public sentiment on the subject. In New York the growth of public sentiment in opposition to the policy is shown in a clause in the Constitution of 1896 prohibiting the legislature from requiring any county or city to contribute to any private charity, by the remarkable report of Controller Bird S. Coler of New York City, which marks an epoch in the charities of that city, by the attitude of the State Charities Aid Association and of many individuals prominent in the charitable affairs of the city and state, by the healthy and kindly spirit of co-operation which is growing among all denominations toward the development of the placing-out system for children, thus removing one of the greatest obstacles to any measures to

limit the growth of the system, and, finally, by the attitude of Governor Odell, who recently wrote this memorandum in signing a bill making an appropriation to an institution for deaf-mutes: "The fact that there are about a dozen institutions over which the state has no jurisdiction except through occasional visitations of the State Board, and that the control is entirely and solely within themselves as in private corporations, leads me to believe that the state should, if it is intended to contribute state money, exercise a proper responsibility as to their management. While I am inclined to withhold approval from the bill, I have decided to approve the measure and trust to future legislation to provide the regulations suggested." (Quoted in *Charities*, April 27, 1901.)

The opinions of the most prominent authorities on charities throughout the United States, as collected by the Charity Organization Society of New York (printed in Appendix to Controller Coler's Report), show that the sentiment among them on this subject is almost unanimously in favor of the complete separation of the public treasury and private charitable institutions.

Various circumstances are presented in justification of the policy under consideration: —

First, it is a matter of ease and economy to the public. At the outset this consideration is of much force. Private charities are already started, and the work grows beyond their means. The subsidy system has usually thus been introduced as a temporary expedient, and very rarely as the result of a well-planned and thought-out policy. It is a product of opportunism. At the outset the small number of dependants does not appear to justify the erection of a public institution. By making use of agencies already established, the public gets the co-operation of private funds and the use of a valuable plant already devoted to the purpose. It gets the unpaid services of citizens acting through benevolent motives in the case of some charities, or through business motives, as in the case of hospitals connected with medical colleges, or through religious impulse, as in the case frequently of institutions for the care of children.

A second strong reason for entering upon this policy is the American distrust of governmental machinery. America has not perfected the machinery of government as yet, and there is well grounded fear of the spoilsman in many of our states. Machine politics have been, and in some cases still are, so strong that the citizen who gives

earnest thought to the welfare of the dependent classes has been led to turn his energy rather to securing aid for charities under private management than to attempting the slower process of developing public sentiment and enforcing better methods on political managers.

The third great reason has been the desire for the moral and religious welfare and training of the dependants. It is felt by many that in private institutions the stigma of pauperism is less likely to attach to the inmates, and thus the moral effects are better. A prime motive in the care of children is to give to them the moral or religious training which is thought essential for their welfare. This appears likewise in the case of old people's homes and in the case of hospitals. Proselyting motives, or the fear of such motives in others, present alike in Hebrew, Protestant, and Catholic, have doubtless inspired the policy more frequently than has been acknowledged.

When the subsidy policy is entered upon, however, a number of difficulties manifest themselves.

1. The cost of the institutions or charities grows rapidly and beyond expectations. When the present system of subsidizing children's institutions was under consideration in California, the legislator in charge of the bill declared that on careful calculations the amount of the subsidies never could pass $30,000 per year. It is now twelve times that amount, and is moving steadily upward. We have seen the same tendency almost everywhere; and, where this is not the case, it is always the proof that great energy has been spent in opposing the system. Without strong opposition it is sure to increase. This is due, among other things, to loose methods of admission to the institutions: the motive to limit the work is not pressing upon the management.

2. It encourages the giving up of dependants by their parents and guardians. The stigma of pauperism is too effectually removed, and many families of ample means hasten to unload upon the public responsibilities which it would be juster and better for them to carry.

3. It weakens private benevolence. At the outset public funds are brought in merely to help out private charity; but soon the public is considered responsible for all, and is considered fortunate to have some aid from private sources. In some cases it brings people into benevolent work from the most mercenary motives. In California some orphan asylums have been established as business enterprises, and children nearly starved to death while the managers were

reaping a profit on the per capita payment for their support. A remarkable case of this sort in New York is described in the Report of the State Charities Aid Association for 1897.

4. It cripples the public institutions. This point has been emphasized by New York charity workers. It is evident that in Pennsylvania enormous amounts are expended yearly for things of doubtful public utility, while for lack of funds the state never has provided adequately for the insane, the feeble-minded, and various other classes. In Maryland there is strong testimony that, while grants were made in favor of private agencies having no just claim on the state, the state institutions have been greatly neglected.

5. It prevents the introduction of better methods. A body of vested interests is created, and even the best-meaning persons oppose the introduction of enlightened methods which would seem to threaten the institutions to which they are devoted. The establishment of state boards of charities in more than one instance has been prevented not so much by the professional politician or the superintendents of state institutions as by active charity workers, who see in them a threat to subsidized charities in which they are interested.

6. It prevents the growth of a unified system of public philanthropy. The subsidized charities stand outside the system of state-controlled institutions, and naturally oppose measures more thoroughly to incorporate them. In this period, when the organic nature of the charitable problem is being more and more recognized, this is one of the greatest disadvantages.

7. It promotes lobbying and special influence. It is true the motive of these lobbyists is often of the best, but pressure is brought upon the legislator which prevents him from considering the case upon its merits. There is evidence of the strong influence of this in Pennsylvania, in Maryland, in California, and in the District of Columbia; and it doubtless is a factor in every instance. A former member of the State Board of Charities of Pennsylvania testifies that members of the legislature frequently traded votes in favor of subsidies in order to log-roll their own measures through.

8. It is frequently in conflict with sound American political principles, as well that of the separation of church and state as that of no special favors to any body of citizens. As Dr. Henderson says (see p. 69, Controller Coler's Report), " Practically, a religious institution for children may thus be supported by those who are opposed

to its beliefs." To hand over to a private institution the funds raised by public taxation because some citizens, being Episcopalians or Hebrews or Germans, or belonging to any other class, prefer to receive the public support under exceptional conditions, certainly opens the door to favoritism of every sort.

While, therefore, some of the reasons given in favor of subsidies may continue to have some validity, the weight of experience and judgment is strongly against them. In a small class of cases they may be temporarily justified, and possibly, where political control is hopelessly corrupt, the subsidy policy may be the lesser of two evils. In general, however, the practice of giving subsidies to private charities is one which no community, in the light of the experience we have to guide us, will for a moment think of entering upon deliberately. Even the minor instances found in many places are essentially objectionable. It is a form of moderate indulgence that is full of danger. The practical question in some eight or ten states where the policy has become firmly rooted is, at least for the immediate future, one of regulation and limitation. It is being recognized that three rules are essential to such regulations of the subsidy system as is possible: first, legal acceptance of the dependant as a public charge; second, regular and close examination and inspection by some regularly constituted public agent; third, specific payment for specific services instead of general appropriations. These have been adopted in New York City, Baltimore, Maryland, and the District of Columbia within the last three years, where before very few, if any, conditions were imposed on the reception or discharge of dependants.

To sum up the conclusions which seem justified from the facts of this report: —

1. There is need of the publication of more exact figures by state charitable boards and boards of control, which will show the amount of public aid received by every private charity, the total amount of aid thus granted, and the proportion it bears to the contributions from private sources. Such statements are almost entirely lacking for the information of the citizen. They would be a great aid to the formation of sound public opinion on this subject.

2. Where the subsidy policy has gained an entrance, its early abolition is the end to be labored for. Where granted at all, subsidies should be carefully controlled by the three methods above mentioned. Everywhere the subsidy policy is on the defensive, the

greatest argument in its support being the merely negative one that a sudden change would be very harmful to dependants and to the public.

3. The subsidy plan is never to be entered upon from choice, but only from necessity, in temporary emergencies and in very rare cases. The principle of public control of public money should be consistently followed as the ideal of our charity system.

Levi L. Barbour.
Jeffrey R. Brackett.
Homer Folks.
Philip C. Garrett.
Henry Hopkins.
Alexander Johnson.
Frank A. Fetter, *Chairman.*

THE SUBSIDY PROBLEM IN NEW YORK CITY.

BY HON. BIRD S. COLER, COMPTROLLER NEW YORK CITY.

It always gives me great pleasure to take advantage of any legitimate opportunity to sound the praises of New York City, and such an opportunity certainly presents itself in any discussion of the public and private charities which that city supports. New York is the gateway of the nation, through which passes every year the never-ceasing stream of immigration. Thousands of the poor and ignorant of foreign lands reach New York every week. Most of them find, at least, a temporary resting-place there. Eventually, they may be in large part distributed throughout the nation; but many, if not most of them, remain in New York City for considerable periods of time, and it is during this stay that New York performs what is really a national service. The poor are relieved, the sick made well, and the ignorant are educated, largely for the ultimate benefit of other communities. The enormous amount of money which New York spends entirely for education — over $20,000,000 — is due in no small degree to the education of the children of these immigrants, who thereafter seek homes in other states, and who have thereby become qualified to

be good and useful citizens through the generosity of the people of New York City. Much the same causes lead to the large appropriations which the city treasurer makes to private and public charities. This is especially true of hospitals and the great children's institutions. To this constant influx of an alien population is largely due the fact that the charity problem of no other city in the world can be compared with that of New York. And it is also true that in no other city in the world can there be found such free-handed generosity in dealing with all forms of charitable relief. To no inconsiderable extent the heavy burden of taxation borne each year by the tax-payers of New York is a gift to the nation. And it is to me inconceivable that the future historians of our country and our people should fail to acknowledge this fact in terms of gratitude. The growth of the subsidy system in New York City followed closely upon the growth of foreign immigration. In 1850 the amount appropriated for the poor cared for in private institutions was only $9,863. This amount grew by decades as follows: in 1860, $128,850; in 1870, $334,828; in 1880, $1,414,257; in 1890, $1,845,870; and in 1900, for Greater New York, $3,079,259.

A subsidy in national affairs or city affairs means an appropriation for the benefit of an object. There are certain things that private institutions can do better than public institutions. And if they are paid on a per capita basis for these, if you hire them to do the work, I do not consider that a subsidy or gift. It is a strictly business proposition. In this discussion, if I use the word "subsidy," I mean a lump sum or gift to aid work.

The subsidy system was the outgrowth of necessity. The public institutions were inadequate, in that they could not promptly respond to the rapidly increasing demands of charity. Private institutions could be and were quickly organized. For a time private benevolence stood nobly in the breach; but, in so far as these private institutions were performing what was essentially a public service, it was inevitable that they should sooner or later seek public support. That support was granted; but, in the granting of it, no uniformity of rule or method was adopted. The subsidy system was not prearranged. It was not the result of forethought. It was the gradual outgrowth of conditions. It was like a house humble in its origin, but frequently added to from time to time, until finally it sprawled all over the ground in ungainly amplitude. It is, perhaps, not too much to say that the

city authorities last year tore down this ramshackle structure, and erected in its place an edifice which, whatever its faults may be, may be said to be at least symmetrical.

Prior to the passage of the so-called Stranahan Act in 1899, the city had been appropriating various sums of money to private charitable institutions under special acts of the legislature, passed from time to time at the solicitation of individuals interested in these institutions. No uniform policy had been pursued in the passage of these acts. Different institutions received different rates of payment for precisely the same kind of charitable work. In some instances the legislature had directed the city to pay money to certain institutions the objects of which, though of a charitable nature, were not of such a character as to warrant public subsidies. The institutions receiving these subsidies were not required to account to the city for the way in which their subsidies were expended, and the city officials possessed but little knowledge of the workings of these institutions. The whole subsidy system was characterized by an entire lack of system.

To show the tremendous size of New York and the great difficulty we have had, I may say that Greater New York now consists of ninety separate corporations consolidated. Each one of these had a different system of arranging charitable appropriations; and it was absolutely necessary for us to adopt some one uniform system, so that the eighty-nine that were always watching out to see whether they were going to be injured by any change, should have no reason to complain. In Brooklyn there was the most flagrant abuse of charitable appropriations. I think Brooklyn could run the District of Columbia very close in methods of distributing charity. There was one institution — I was threatened with a libel suit if I should use its name again — which received $750 from the city,— rather a small institution. The president was a dressmaker, and the treasurer was a music teacher. Each received $300 salary, and they collected $48 outside. That is one institution. There was another organized by Republicans and Democrats, a bi-partisan job. They were going to help their fellowmen at the expense of the city, and they joined hands in that great and noble work; and the city of Brooklyn paid them $5,000 a year. They spent $3,000, and used $2,000 to pay off the mortgage on their building. If that arrangement had continued a few years, the trustees would have had a nice building at their own disposal. They raised almost no money. We had 120 or 130 institutions on the list. Any

kind of an institution could go and get money from the city, just as they do down here. There was absolute necessity for arranging some system that would cut out such institutions. Before we got up the elaborate report which we made, we were groping round in the dark; and I made up my mind that I would not give for an institution more than 50 per cent. of the money it raised from private contributions. In that way we smoked out a great many that were entirely supported by the city, but managed by private citizens.

The effect of the Stranahan Act of 1899, following the Constitutional Amendment of 1894, was to grant to the local authorities full and ample power and discretion in the matter of making appropriations for charitable purposes, and to throw upon the city government the entire responsibility for these expenditures. This was an experiment not only interesting from the standpoint of those engaged in charitable work, but of genuine importance to the broader question of municipal home rule. I believe that all students of municipal government will watch with the deepest interest the results of this experiment, and that upon its success or failure depends in no small degree the prospect of the citizens of New York City of being able to wrest from the legislature of the state the power of expending their own money for municipal purposes according to their own lights.

I want to call attention to one point in our new charter, with reference to Bellevue Hospital, which I think a most vicious one. It provides that private charities are to name the trustees of this hospital, and the city is to supply the money. There is no one great body of men, no one church behind it, that can be held responsible. I want to go on record as saying that I believe it will be the most disastrous attempt that we have ever had in New York to handle a charity. I believe in paying a private hospital per capita for actual work; in the city, not the hospital, accepting the patient. Personally, I would rather deal with a private hospital on an audited bill than without proper safeguards as to the amount of money that will be spent on it. I think our medical friends get a little bit too anxious as to the clinical proposition. It looks to me as if they had got control of the emergency hospital of New York for educational and clinical purposes. I do not believe that patients should be at the mercy of clinical operators.

In rearranging and reapportioning appropriations for private charities in the budget for the year 1900, the Board of Estimate and

Apportionment (which in New York is the appropriating body) adopted the following principles: —

First. All such appropriations were included in the annual budget, which is raised directly by taxation, so that each item thereof could be under the easy scrutiny of the tax-payers. Hitherto donations to private charities had in large part been made from the excise fund and other special funds which affected the tax levy only in an indirect manner, and which were, therefore, more or less removed from the critical inspection of the tax-payers. Special revenues should not be set apart for special purposes. New York had an income from a theatrical and concert fund that amounted to $100,000 a year. In days gone by they made appropriations from this fund for all kinds of charitable work. Such a revenue is just as much a revenue of the city of New York as a tax upon a house. Yet it was set aside for charitable purposes. If all the revenues are turned into the city treasury, the budget can be more closely analyzed by those who look after it. About half my time, when I first became comptroller, was spent in listening to people who wanted to get hold of some of the money from this theatrical and concert fund for charitable purposes. It is remarkable,— the number of people willing to do charitable work if there is a way to get money from the public.

Second. With scarcely an exception, all payments to private charitable institutions were measured by a system of per capita charges or by some other system of pro rata payment governed by the specific service performed. The schedule of payments now, of course, is as follows: —

For infants under two years of age and for inmates of infants' hospitals between the ages of two and five	38 cts. per day
For dependent children from two to sixteen years of age	$2 per week
For delinquent children, for adult inmates of reformatories committed by the courts, and for inmates in homes for fallen and friendless women	$110 per annum
For maternity cases	$18 per case
For homeless mothers nursing their own infants	$12 per month
To hospitals for medical treatment	60 cts. per day
To hospital for surgical treatment	80 cts. per day

The city has ceased to appropriate money for subsidizing homes for the aged. While this form of charity is in many respects a most worthy one, it was felt that it belonged properly to the realm of

private benevolence. There would be no end to the difficulty if a city should start out to say who was a respectable pauper and who was not. Those aged people who have led respectable lives and stood well in the community should be provided for by private charity.

The city, through its several subdivisions, cares for the helpless aged in the almshouses; and, while it is true that a natural prejudice exists against almshouses and that entrance therein is a sad end for those who have led respectable lives, it was also recognized that the stigma of allowing a relative to go to the almshouse is in many cases a strong incentive to inducing persons to support their aged relatives at their own expense, whereas the same person would actively seek to have such relatives admitted to a private home for the aged to which no such stigma attaches. At all events, it was felt that the maintenance of public almshouses and the subsidizing of private homes for the aged necessarily resulted in a kind of class distinction which is indefensible in a democratic community.

The city of New York has also ceased to contribute public moneys toward the support of private institutions engaged in outdoor relief. Many of these charities are of a most worthy character; but they, too, belong rather within the scope of private benevolence, and the danger of fostering pauperism by the entrance of the city into this field is too great safely to be ignored. With the sole exception of small payments authorized to be made to the poor adult blind, the city is expressly prohibited by its charter from engaging in any form of outdoor relief; and the same principle which warrants this wise prohibition in the city's charter would seem to forbid the undertaking of this work in an indirect manner through private means. There have been thus far a few exceptions to this rule in regard to outdoor relief which have been recognized by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. Perhaps the most important exception relates to dispensaries. For many years dispensaries have been receiving grants of public money in New York, and in Brooklyn the public dependence upon this kind of outdoor relief had grown to such an extent that its sudden abolition would have caused considerable suffering in certain quarters.*

*Some time ago 70 per cent. of the medical treatment in the Brooklyn dispensary was free. At some of our dispensaries people looking almost as well dressed as we may be seen waiting to get their medicine from the public free of charge. In one dispensary they had a sign up that the dispensary would not be responsible for any valuables stolen. It was remarkable that New York stood it so

Appropriations to dispensaries were, therefore, not abolished, but circumscribed and abridged. Instead of making donations in lump sums to dispensaries, the city adopted a rule appropriating each year to dispensaries amounts limited to 50 per cent. of the amounts received by them respectively from private benevolence during the preceding year and not exceeding in any case 50 per cent. of the amount actually disbursed by any dispensary for dispensary purposes. This has had the effect of wiping out of existence a number of dispensaries of mushroom growth, which depended exclusively upon city money for support, while it has not crippled private dispensaries established upon a more substantial basis.

It is perhaps too soon to speak the final word in regard to the success of this experiment. Generally speaking, the new rules have been acquiesced in by the great private charities of New York with cheerfulness and good will. Considering the difficulties inherent in any radical change in the subsidy system, it has been surprising and a matter of sincere congratulation to note how few have been the objections or complaints which have been raised. In 1899 the amount actually expended by the city in aid of private charities was $2,886,229.30. Under the system first inaugurated in 1900, the Board of Estimate and Apportionment appropriated $3,079,259.60, it being uncertain at the time of making these appropriations just what the result of the new system would be. The actual amount expended in 1900, however, was $2,676,534.28 or $209,695.02 less than the amount expended in the preceding year, and $402,725.32 less than the amount appropriated.

Outside of the saving effected by striking from the list of beneficiaries institutions engaged in outdoor relief, the principal decrease in cost has been found in the great children's institutions. This has been due chiefly to a more careful system of inspection instituted by the institutions themselves and by the Department of Public Charities, to a more careful supervision and audit of accounts by the Department of Finance, and to the valuable assistance rendered to the city officials by private individuals and associations engaged in charitable work.

In visiting institutions in New York nothing has been pleasanter than the study of the child-saving institutions. I believe that in no

long. Foreigners, especially those from the Latin climate, think they must have their medical treatment free. They also like to get the city to take care of their children. We should do our charitable work in such a way that it does not make people dependants or paupers.

city in the world can you find any better system of institutions to take care of children than New York has. We must not think that institutions are grabbing for children: I have never found any institution doing so. In fact, many of them are organizing home-finding bureaus to get children away from institutions. In the borough of Brooklyn we have an institution for delinquent children which is run by the city. I do not believe you will ever get, even by the best system of civil service that can be devised, employees that will take children and rear them up with any heart. Dependent and delinquent children must be intrusted to the great religious bodies that have some heart and take an interest in them, and will give some attention to their moral education. For our Brooklyn disciplinary training school we had three Protestants, five Catholics, and five Hebrews, who got along very well together; but the institution has been a source of scandal. We have had a superintendent from the civil service list who could not be removed; and it is costing $500 a year each to demoralize those children instead of $110 a year, as it would cost to have the work better done at a private institution.

I believe a home is better for a child than any institution; but in a tremendous city like New York, into which thousands and thousands of foreigners come, into which the poor from all parts of our own country come, to which the overseers of the poor from other states and cities give free tickets for railroad passage, it is absolutely necessary that we should have these great institutions and should support them. We pay for actual work performed. I do not consider that a subsidy, in the proper use of the word. As regards dependent children, I do not think you will ever be able in the most scientific charity system to get heart in an institution managed by the city as we have in the great private institutions of our city.

I believe in the organization of the home-finding bureau. We are putting a premium on that. We want institutions to find homes for children. If for $20 or $50 we can get an institution to find a home for a child, it is a pretty good investment. If we can save eight or ten years' board of a child by spending $50, I look on that as a good business plan. A great number of children have been placed in homes from our institutions.

The chief increase of cost under the new system — in fact, the only item of increase — is to be found in the subsidies to hospitals. The hospital problem is one of the most difficult phases of the subsidy

system in New York. It is too intricate to be summed up in a few words, and the conditions are so different in the different boroughs of the city that generalization is scarcely possible. But I may say that the difficulties of this side of the question are not so fundamental as to resist future solution in the hands of any intelligent Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

Speaking broadly, therefore, I may conclude by saying that the subsidy system of New York City has been greatly improved by intrusting its treatment exclusively to the local authorities, and that, while it is still a proper subject for much criticism and improvement, there has been enough accomplished already to mark out a path upon which the most substantial and beneficial progress may be made in the future.

EFFECTS UPON PRIVATE CHARITY OF THE ABSENCE OF ALL PUBLIC RELIEF.

BY FRANCIS H. McLEAN,

GENERAL SECRETARY, CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY, MONTREAL.

"The almshouse is the fundamental institution in American poor relief," writes Warner. "It cares for all the abjectly destitute not otherwise provided for. Its shelter is the guarantee against starvation which the state offers to all, no matter how unfortunate or degraded." Subtract the almshouse, subtract any form of public institution or aid for dependants or for defectives excepting the insane and a small fraction of the idiotic, and you have the conditions existing in Montreal. Turn to the charitable grants of the province of Quebec for 1899,— a sample of all years,— and you find $365,000 appropriated for the insane, $64,000 for reformatories, $13,000 for schools for deaf-mutes, and $44,675 in driblets divided among all the other institutions in the province. Turn to the city grants for the present year, and you find $32,500 appropriated for the support of orphans, $24,000 for the insane, and $2,200 in driblets for ambulances, night schools, and humane societies.

In other words, neither the city nor province, either by the maintenance of public institutions or by reasonable grants to private institutions, assumes or pretends to assume any responsibility beyond the care of all delinquents, the care of the insane among the defectives and orphaned children among the dependants.

Time does not allow of my explaining the causes of this interesting condition beyond stating that it can be directly traced (1) to the early growth of institutions founded by religious societies, encouraged by heavy land grants and certain exemptions from taxation; (2) and later by the very marked line of religious cleavage which exists in the city,— a cleavage plainly observable in two public school systems, two hospitals for the insane, and two jails for women,— in each case divided by religious lines, Catholic and Protestant.

But our discussion to-day turns upon the influence of the absence of usual public relief upon private charity. And, first, I must explain that I shall not attempt to carry the question along the lines of backwardness in methods,— a backwardness strikingly apparent in the whole charitable field in Montreal. Antiquated systems and antiquated ideas are traced to a multiplicity of causes which do not bear upon our present theme. And due allowance is made for their presence, excepting, of course, when they can be traced directly to the absence of public relief.

First, let us consider the effects, the exterior effects, upon the whole mass of public charity, indoor and outdoor.

To begin with, the absence from the tax rates of compulsory benevolence has not in any way increased the generosity of the community at large with reference to charities organized into societies or institutions. In Montreal, as elsewhere, the supporters of one society are generally the supporters of a dozen others; and no institution can boast of a genuinely popular support.

This does not mean that organized private charity bears *all* the responsibility of the charitable activities usually carried on by public agencies, with no additions whatever to the usual financial means at its command. For it must be remembered that the original land grants of the older religious societies have yielded large revenues in some cases; and, consequently, there have been enlargements of their plants.

But the burden has by no means been entirely lightened by reason of this fact, as the city has grown to its present population of 300,000.

Private organized charity, assuming the burden of public relief, has been over-recompensed, perhaps, in the case of certain societies. In many others it has received little, if any, additional income.

The absence of any governmental responsibility has seriously added to the burdens of private charity in another way. There is no public officer whose duty it is to see that the city is not burdened with the support of those who belong to other cities or counties. The mayor occasionally helps in transportation from his contingent fund of $500, but it is really not incumbent upon him to do so. The results may be easily imagined. A city of 300,000, with many institutions, surrounded by a semi-rural country dotted here and there with small-sized cities — and a well-defined route of travel for wanderers between Ontario, the Maritime Provinces, and Montreal. The absence of governmental responsibility has even prevented the placing of any effective settlement laws on the statute books of the province. This has added even more to the unjust burdens borne by the city institutions. An evil of this sort grows by leaps and bounds, if it is unchecked. It is not an evil, I submit, which can be properly dealt with by private charity without any governmental interference or even any governmental sanctions for sending the almshouse poor back to their proper counties.

Thus the simple absence of governmental responsibility works toward an unjust squandering of private charitable resources.

Effects upon Private Indoor Relief.— If we take a bird's-eye view of the indoor relief furnished by private charity, we at once observe that the elemental human sympathy which can be aroused for helpless children and the acutely sick has furnished all the facilities necessary for their care, if not more than necessary.

For the destitute aged there are a number of homes; but admission is often secured only after weeks and months of delay, just as in other places where there is a place for temporary shelter. I may say, indeed, that the usual methods of admitting inmates in all the institutions are not materially altered in the direction of greater speed, because of the absence of public indoor relief. Then, also, as you descend the scale of responsibility and inoffensiveness and come to the most miserable cases, there is a reluctance to admit them and, when the reluctance is overcome, another evil crops up, which I will speak of in a moment.

As for all the abjectly miserable class of the infirm and crip-

pled and those suffering with chronic diseases, the incurables and the blind, the feeble-minded and the homeless convalescents, and so on, private charity has failed to do what public relief does elsewhere,— at least assure a rough shelter for all such.

Private charity so far as it finds its way into the funds of institutions, discovers its resources to be almost consumed before it reaches the lower grades of the abjectly miserable.

And, in so far as it does fulfil the function of a public institution or institutions, it introduces another evil by very materially degrading the quality of private benefactions. To illustrate. In a community where there is even an almshouse, it is perfectly possible for an old people's home maintained by private funds to exercise discrimination in admitting only the comparatively respectable poor. With no public institution as a place for final refuge, the usual standards have to be done away with. Now differentiation and classification are nowhere better illustrated than in private charitable institutions. But place the public burden upon private charity, and these two of its shining excellences are crushed under the weight without at the same time its satisfactorily performing the additional duties.

Effects upon Outdoor Private Charity.— We are indebted to Mr. Paine for an earnest and eloquent denial that we have the right to consider the case of any human being reduced to destitution and misery as a hopeless case. It is not hopeless until we acknowledge it to be that. Yet however, in any normally constituted community we do recognize a certain class of dependants and defectives whose care rightly belongs to the community at large, and whom for brevity's sake we will call the almshouse poor; that is, those who in other communities are housed in county almshouses and infirmaries and other institutions either temporarily or permanently.

In Montreal there is no such public care, and more than that, as we have seen, no adequate provision for, or certainty of, indoor treatment under private auspices. Some portion of the burden has therefore to be undertaken by private charity in the form of outdoor relief. Nothing more demoralizing to intelligently directed charity can be imagined if the experience in Montreal counts for anything and if my own observations have been correctly generalized.

Let us first consider effects upon private outdoor relief as carried on by organized relief societies: —

Organized Outdoor Relief.— The one most striking result is that

private charity, assuming in a way the position occupied by the county or city in a community in which there is public outdoor relief, has possessed itself of some of the worst characteristics of that form of relief,— stereotyped methods and amounts of relief, officialism, and indiscrimination. For instance, the methods of a society I have in mind remind one very strikingly of the methods of boards of supervisors acting as poor overseers in some of our Western states. During the winter season almost any one of the right religion, and who does not appear before the board of the society in a drunken condition, is sure of getting relief, which invariably means a package of groceries each week, and a quarter ton of coal or a quarter cord of wood each three weeks, whether there be one or six in the family. I am aware that there are relief societies in other cities which have stereotyped methods in this respect also, but I doubt if they are anywhere as unvarying as in Montreal. And, certainly, relief societies elsewhere do not generally do such indiscriminate work, and do not force applicants to stand up before a board of eight or ten men and state their wants, and do not herd together 200 to 300 applicants in a room while their cases are being considered one by one ; for the board I speak of only meets once a week, and no relief can be given out between the intervals of its meetings. There is no investigation except in very rare cases, and the questioning before the board is of a more or less perfunctory character. In other words, if I could suddenly drop one of my hearers to-day down into the meeting-room of this board while it was in session, without his having any knowledge of its character, I am sure that he would be convinced in his own mind that it was a public board dispensing public outdoor relief.

Of the four general relief societies having to do with Protestants, three compel applicants to appear personally before full boards at weekly meetings, and be questioned there.

Two only have anything which could by courtesy be called investigating. Three have practically stereotyped amounts of material relief.

Upon the Catholic side the world-wide traditions of the St. Vincent de Paul Society have effectually prevented its degenerating along the line of officialism even under the pressure of local conditions. The steady, sure methods of personal visitation before relief, of ability to order relief at any time, of secrecy so far as the applications are concerned, excepting at the conference meetings, are followed in

Montreal, as elsewhere. But, if I have observed rightly, even with this society there has had to be a considerable stretching of its usual policy with reference to discrimination in relief.

It is curious, I may add, how the semi-public function performed by these general boards leads to the growth of a feeling which is so often manifested toward public outdoor relief elsewhere; namely, the poor considering relief as their right, and not their privilege.

This waste of charitable resources indefinitely increases the difficulties connected with wise relief-giving by making the securing of adequate relief about the most baffling problem with which we have to deal, and this in a community which is exceedingly generous.

This can be better appreciated when it is realized that the demoralization of which we have spoken extends to relief given through churches, private charitable groups, and by individuals personally.

As I have indicated before, the absence of public relief has not materially increased the funds available for private charity which is organized into institutions or societies. At the same time I believe it has increased the amount of private individual charity. Now private individual charity is often a very thoughtless thing. If it reflected sufficiently, or if in the future it is induced to reflect sufficiently, it will divert at least a portion of what it now gives out indiscriminately to the more generous support of its institutions, so that they may more nearly cope with the situation, and perhaps another portion may go to rightly organized adequate relief. But to-day we are simply concerned with direct results, and not with possibilities of the dim and distant future.

It may be claimed that I unduly exaggerate the importance of the presence of the almshouse poor as a factor in private outdoor relief. After all, the percentage of such not in private institutions may be really small. Why, therefore, should it so badly demoralize right methods of relief? In reply, I would state that such a question does not take into consideration the subjective element in the problem. It is not the actually necessary amount of additional relief which causes the harm, though that is no mean amount, but it is the fact that no one ever loses consciousness, that there is no apparent place of last refuge for those who require discipline or indoor treatment, though that last refuge would only become a necessity in a comparatively few cases. Let me make myself plain. Take a normal community. A relief society refuses aid to this family and that family.

No one ever supposes that all such families or persons are going to drift into public institutions. It is the hope of a relief society that, with the assistance of the alms of good advice, most of them will force their way to self-dependence under the necessary discipline. And so the refusal is made, knowing that in the end the few absolutely unfit will eventually become public charges; but remove that assurance, and you at once open up unpleasant possibilities,— possibilities which are often theoretical ones only, but which will still wield influence.

Take away the place of final refuge,— the public institution,— and the poison of weakness and shuffling inefficiency and headless sentimentality, which must always be guarded against in private outdoor relief, simply runs rife; and, more than that, private charity finds its interests unwholesomely centred around elemental material problems of bread and fuel.

In summary, therefore, the principal points which I have tried to make are as follows: —

Exterior Effects upon the Whole Mass of Charity.

1. Does not materially increase the number of those who give to private charity.

2. Increases the burdens of private charity so far as the support of non-residents is concerned, because there is no governmental responsibility in the matter.

3. Still further increases these burdens, because the lack of governmental responsibility has prevented the enactment and enforcement of proper settlement laws.

Effects upon Indoor Private Charity.

1. Methods and results.

(*a*) Has not materially changed methods of admission and the usual delays.

(*b*) Has of necessity somewhat relaxed the usual discrimination as to the approval of applicants for admission.

(*c*) But this has by no means come to the point where there is absolute assurance of the admission somewhere of any individual case.

(*d*) There has been a necessary deterioration of private indoor charity on account of its inability to make classifications and differentiations, owing to its additional burdens.

(*e*) The erection of private institutions with no government responsibility as to the care of non-resident paupers has increased the number of such beyond normal proportions.

2. Effects upon particular forms of outdoor relief.

(*a*) Adequate provision for children and the acutely sick.

(*b*) Fair provision for destitute poor, but institutions often overcrowded.

(*c*) Not sufficient provision for the other classes of the infirm, incurables, those suffering from chronic diseases, etc.

Thus private charity has failed to perform its superadded duties satisfactorily, and its efforts have only deteriorated the character of the work which it does do.

Effects on Outdoor Private Relief.

1. The absence of a place of final resort, though it would only be required in a comparatively few cases, weakens the spirit of sympathetic firmness which is often required in giving or withholding of aid.

2. As a corollary thereto, there is an unusual amount of indiscriminate relief even among the more intelligent, and the consequences are that the securing of adequate relief for helpable cases, always difficult, becomes an unusually perplexing problem.

3. So far as private outdoor charity organized into societies is concerned, it has possessed itself of some of the worst features of public outdoor relief as administered elsewhere; namely, stereotyped amounts of relief,— that is, doles, officialism, and methods of work which mean degradation and humiliation to applicants.

VI.

Treatment of the Criminal.

HOW THE STATE OUGHT TO DEAL WITH CRIMINALS.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE, BY CHARLTON T. LEWIS, LL.D.

In this generation a complete revolution is rapidly taking place in the method of dealing with criminals on the part of organized society. Through the greater part of the nineteenth century the animating principle in such dealings has been the punishment of offences; that is to say, the primitive and traditional impulse to inflict injury as a recompense for wrong has been accepted in social and legal life, and made the basis of legislation and administration. The principle has found support in religious feelings and theological notions, which are partly innate and partly traditional. It has been carried very far; and many penal codes have been formed upon the theory that it is possible to define crimes and misdemeanors, to apportion to each by name its relative guilt, and to affix to each a grade of punishment proportioned to its guilt. The absurdity of this entire system of thought has no doubt been clearly seen by many thoughtful minds from the first; and various theories have been devised to support the penal systems founded upon it, independently of the doctrine of retribution. The only one of these which can be said to have taken root in the general mind is that the object of the punishment of criminals is to deter others from committing similar offences. It is assumed that, whenever a man commits a crime, it is the right of society to make him an example, to use him as a means of preventing others from offending. The theory is frequently illustrated by the story of a British judge who, when the horse thief remonstrated against the sentence that he be hanged, answered, "I hang you not for stealing a horse, but that horses

may not be stolen." This notion, however, is so confusing to the moral sense that it has never commended itself to philosophic thinkers. Moreover, an appeal to facts fails to justify it. It is known to all who have carefully studied the criminal class, their instincts, habits, and motives, that the instances in which men are deterred from crime by the apprehension of legal punishment are but few. Such penalties may have some deterrent effect upon those who already have strong influences for good in their social position and associations, but not to any important extent upon habitual criminals.

In the light of social science our penal codes are without consistency or justification. And, if these codes are considered historically, the investigator is surprised to find that they have never been founded upon a reasoned system of thought, but have grown up as the result of circumstances and accidents. It is but a few generations since imprisonment as a penalty for offences may be said to have been unknown. The punishment for crime consisted of whipping, of the pillory, of personal mutilations, of exile, of fines. Prisons were used to detain prisoners and witnesses, but the imprisonment itself was not regarded as a penalty. As customs became mitigated and refined, and as the barbarism of the penalties commonly inflicted began to revolt the growing spirit of humanity, imprisonment gradually took the place of other punishments, until in most of the penal codes of the civilized world it is now, either exclusively or almost entirely, substituted for physical suffering. In recent years attempts have been made by able legislators and thinkers to graduate more accurately the degrees of criminality involved in particular offences, to define them with greater care, and to proportion the penalties to them with more relation to current conceptions of justice. But every such effort is in its nature condemned to failure. It has become more and more obvious that a particular act legally defined as an offence, proved to a jury, and made the basis of a verdict of guilty and of the sentence of the court, can in no case furnish a measure of the desert of him who commits it. The grossest inequalities in the terms of imprisonment assigned to particular offences are found in the comparative legislation of different states, and inequalities no less great in the judicial administration of each state where a discretion is intrusted to the judge. No classification of offences can constitute a classification of of-

fenders; and the effect of a period of imprisonment upon the mind and character of a prisoner can in no case be foreseen, nor can it be assumed that the effect, whatever it be, is proportionate to the length of the imprisonment.

Meanwhile the positive evils of the system of wholesale imprisonment of offenders, as now generally practised, become more prominent, the more they are studied. Practically, the vast majority of our prisons are but schools of criminality. Nearly the whole of the criminal class, recognized as enemies of society, are the graduates of these schools. Imprisonment in itself has no good effect upon the prisoner's character. It furnishes no stimulus to good conduct or check upon evil motives; but it is an unnatural life, and the vast majority of those who are condemned to it degenerate under its influence. Add to this that, even if it were the most wholesome and beneficial life of which the inmates of the prisons are capable, yet the practice of consigning them to it for a time predetermined without regard to individual character or special circumstances, solely in reference to the name which the law assigns to the particular act, would rob it of all its value. If it be assumed that the effect of prison life is good upon the character, then imprisonment should be applied for just so long a time as it will continue to be beneficial.

But the entire subject, in order that it may be comprehended as a consistent whole, must be studied upon the basis of recognized principles of social science. The object of the dealings of society with crime is to protect society against the criminal, to eliminate crime. If this be admitted, it is obvious that, if prisons are to find a place in the system of criminal jurisprudence, it must be as a means contributing to this end. Doubtless they may to some extent be made useful for such a purpose. The criminal, as long as he is in prison, is disarmed. His warfare against society is suspended. Absurd as it is to send him to prison for a predetermined period, it must be admitted that there are many men whose characters and habits are such that it is best for society at large to keep them in confinement. There can be no justification whatever for imprisoning a man unless his confinement is necessary to protect the rights of others. It follows necessarily that the duration of the confinement must be determined by this necessity. Every sentence to imprisonment should be ended only by the attainment of fitness for freedom. This is the principle of the Indeterminate Sentence, so called, which is

already recognized to a limited extent in the legislation of several countries and of several states of the Union, but which has as yet but a narrow and partial application. The principle is universal.

Another principle intimately associated with this, and which is also gradually forcing its way into recognition, is that of probation for convicted offenders. Of the vast majority of those who are detected in violations of law and brought before the courts to answer for them, it cannot be said with truth that it is a danger to society for them to be at large. In every such case it is a wrong to the offender to send him to jail. A far better course is to extend the paternal and protecting care of the state over such cases, through the agency of responsible and trained officers, for such time as is necessary to obtain the assurance that their permanent freedom is consistent with the rights of others. In this spirit the well-known Probation Law of Massachusetts has been framed, and it is gradually finding imitators in the legislatures of other states, giving hope that it will soon be in general practice. Its results have already, in the very partial application which it has found, proved extraordinarily beneficial. It has done much to diminish juvenile offences and crimes in Massachusetts and in England, and promises to be one of the most potent methods by which the state can seek to eliminate criminality.

The system of paroling prisoners under conditional release after they have served part of their terms with credit has already been widely practised in many countries. It has been found an important auxiliary to the reformatory work of well-conducted penal institutions. But its best use is in connection, unquestionably, with the Indeterminate Sentence. When an offender is found of such a character that he cannot safely be left in freedom, but after proper moral and industrial training in a reformatory institution has given evidence of his capacity and disposition to support himself honestly, he should obtain a conditional release, with proper employment, subject in case of any irregularity to be returned to prison, but with the privilege of earning a complete restoration to independent social life after a sufficient period of trial. This process, in connection with the best reformatory institutions of the country, has been found to result in the entire re-establishment of a large majority of those to whom its benefits have been extended.

These principles necessarily imply that the internal administration

of prisons shall be directed to the education of the inmates and their training in regular and productive industry. Each one of these essential reforms deserves an elaborate discussion far beyond our present limits. The necessity, however, of these improvements in prison discipline is generally recognized; and the chief difficulty met in promoting them is that of obtaining wardens, officers, and employees competent in all respects for the work. These positions require, not merely high intelligence and great strength of character, but also a profound knowledge of human nature and a special training in the methods of dealing with its degenerate and perverse forms. The administration of the Indeterminate Sentence, as is well understood, requires peculiar intelligence and training if the very difficult task of determining when a prisoner is so reformed as to justify release is to be intrusted to the prison authorities. It is notorious that the worst criminals are sometimes able to put on the garb of penitence and reform so as to impose on all ordinary observers. Upon this subject all that needs to be said to-day is that in social life every special need, whether of character or of intelligence, ultimately produces its own supply, and that, if the true principles of penal legislation are adopted and vigorously carried into effect, a body of men competent in all respects to administer these laws will gradually be raised up for the purpose.

Taken together, the principles we have suggested constitute a new system of penal law, and are destined completely to transform the method by which society at large deals with crime. We hold, therefore, that every reformer should direct his efforts, not merely to the introduction of detailed improvements in our prisons or in our penal laws, but to the accomplishment of the great revolution, now clearly in prospect, which shall embody these wholesome and demonstrated principles in the legislation and practice of the state.

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THE NEED OF REVOLUTION.

BY C. L. STONAKER,

SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, COLORADO.

"In this generation a complete revolution is rapidly taking place in the method of dealing with criminals on the part of organized society," says Mr, Charlton T. Lewis. This revolution is being retarded, also, by judges, attorneys, and ministers of the gospel. Only here and there do you find a judge on the bench who is brave enough to defy the traditions of the judiciary by thoughtful discretion in the exercise of his powers; and of the array of legal talent you can only pick out an occasional lawyer not wholly lost to precedents, decisions of the higher courts, a habitual veneration for what is known as legislative interest, and who will give an opinion that the entire system of criminal codes stands in sore need of a twentieth-century revision. As to the third class mentioned, at the risk of being consigned to the unutterable darkness along with divine healers and wayward advocates of the New Theology, I am inclined to assert that our clergy are yet in the Egyptian darkness of the Mosaic codes and out of sympathy with any modern view of criminology.

In the state of Colorado, the penalty for stealing cattle is fixed at a mininum of three years for a maximum of ten years. For bigamy the penalty is only two years. A young country boy, sentenced from four to ten years for assisting to kill a steer on the range and selling the beef in the market town, recently applied for pardon; and his case was considered at the same time that another application was heard wherein a husband, the father of two children, convicted of bigamy and sentenced to a term of from one to two years, sought release on a legal technicality at the end of one year's imprisonment. Leaving his family in one town to work in another, he became intimate with a young girl, married her to avoid the harsher penalty for seduction, and entered a plea of guilty to bigamy. Before the one year was up, both the woman whom he had betrayed and the wife whom he deserted died. His plea for pardon was an expressed desire to care for his motherless children, and that he had protected the social standing of the girl by marrying her. The judge in the

case of the cattle stealing opposed clemency because of the lesson needed for other cattle thieves. The trial judge in the bigamy case strenuously urged pardon because of a legal technicality in the trial of the cause which made the sentence of one to two years void after one year had been served. Character, previous conduct, the moral obloquy or present mental state of the two prisoners, was not considered, apparently, by the two judges. They were wedded to their hair-splitting legal views and the language of statutes.

At the same hearing of pardon applicants a minister of the gospel, of undoubted intelligence and ability, made a plea for a young man serving a term of life sentence for murder of the most atrocious sort, and stated that he did so believing the prisoner innocent because he had often talked with him about it.

The committee's report on the status of our penal codes is another indication that the revolution fails to be assisted by the legal fraternity or by the great mass of our professional class of moral instructors or character-builders.

Prisons are a modern institution, and that we have in every state a prison with a population of from 250 to 1,000, while in some states several prisons have from 3,000 to 5,000 inmates, where crime in all its most horrible forms is taught, seems not to disturb our complacency and our self-centred faith in the greatness of our social position as compared with that of other people and other nations. From these pest-holes we send forth an army of men to disseminate germs of moral poison, to develop and spread contagion broadcast. It was only within the last twelvemonth that the people of New York State have awakened fully to the dangers of the old Sing Sing prison. But the alarm was because of the physical dangers lurking there, and not so much the moral miasma. The degradation of our prison life, the destruction of body and soul by reason of prison habits and customs, the slave tasks of the contract labor system, the lack of a single refining influence during the dreary years of incarceration, the refusal of society to receive the released convict upon his discharge upon any other basis than a pariah who is not to be touched and who is to be shunned as a leper, to be hounded by the political police and by the crafty, revengeful, and often corrupt detective, and to be selected as a tool by the unbranded leading citizen to consummate some nefarious scheme for selfish aggrandizement,— these are some of the methods included in our treatment of the criminal of to-day. It is no wonder

that he is so easily persuaded to declare warfare upon all men and by his craft to make such terrible reprisals on society as a whole.

Of course, we must have prisons, because we have had them for a hundred years. But we can help on the revolution of prison reform, and make them more serviceable as places for the better development of men. The hospital idea was slowly developed in our care of the insane. The hospital idea must come in our scheme of imprisonment.

We rejoice to know that the dangers of yellow fever epidemics have been materially lessened by the drastic sanitary regulations enforced by our military occupation of Cuba. The epidemic of crime which prevails in urban and rural life, threatening our social life at all times, requires also drastic measures; and the old ways will not do.

The hospital idea accepted, we have the problems right for solution affecting the physical, mental, and spiritual welfare of the beneficiaries of the prisons.

VII.

The Insane.

PUBLIC POLICY IN THE CARE OF THE INSANE UP TO THE TWENTIETH CENTURY.

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Civilization is the outgrowth of man's humanity. To dispel human ignorance and superstition, to alleviate human distress, to combat human error, to protect and prolong human life, is a social obligation. Year by year, for almost a generation, has this concourse of noble men and noble women assembled in every quarter of this broad land for the discussion of the greatest problems of human life. Throughout this great world, everywhere,— in the workshop, in the school-house, in the hospital, in the asylum, and in the reformatory,— is being constantly pursued the study of man, "the greatest study of mankind." The problem that presents itself to each of us is most difficult and many-sided; but some solution or working theory is imperative, else degeneracy becomes the terminal history of the race. Each one is working along different lines, but all handle much of the same material, have fully as great responsibility, and must give as careful account of their stewardship. If we have condensed our theology and brought it into harmony with the two greatest of all the commandments as enunciated by the Master, we shall realize that we are "our brother's keeper," and that we are not wholly irresponsible for his sins.

There is perhaps no more unfortunate form of human affliction than mental alienation, no more pitiable class of human dependants than those who have become bereft of their reason. When we search the pages of history concerning this disease, we find such terms as

" demon," " devil-possessed," "witch," and " lunatic " are used to characterize — we might have said to caricature — the victims of a mind diseased. At first, their affliction seemed in some way to be the result of supernatural influences, and they were regarded with fear and awe, almost amounting to reverence. To them, in Egypt and in Greece the temples of the gods were open; and for them pagan priests were consecrated, whose ministrations were in harmony with the popular conception of this visitation of the gods. The shrines of Saturn and the temples of Æsculapius, however, have never been recorded as places where torture and physical pain were adjuncts to the care and cure of " those whom the gods made mad."

A night passed in the midst of the sacred serpents in the presence of the god and in his temple, five centuries before the birth of Christ, has no comparison to a day spent in the historic Bedlam of old England in the sixteenth century of the Christian era. The woes of the poor lunatic have been sung by Homer and portrayed by Sophocles; while Hippocrates, the great father of medicine, had he lived in the Middle Ages instead of five centuries before the birth of Christ, would doubtless have met violent death for his wonderfully advanced views on the subject of insanity. Listen to these words of his: " Men ought to know that from nothing else but the brain come joy, despondency, and lamentation, . . . and by the same organ we become mad and delirious." And yet Burton, in his " Anatomy of Melancholy," says the insane were bewitched, and could cause tempests and diseases. What progress in two thousand years! The Christian era did not bring with it that enlightenment upon the subject of mental disease that seemed to be promised many centuries before its dawning.

From this time the public policy in the treatment of the so-called " devil-possessed " was one of torture and revenge. He who writes or reads of the insane during the Middle Ages, chronicles a terrible history, or reads that which makes his inmost soul revolt at the depths of degradation reached, the needless misery wrought, by man's ignorance and inhumanity. Demoniacal possession was the central idea of mental disease in the earlier centuries, and exorcism by the Church was its most beneficent treatment. There were other measures, however, adopted that could not have been prompted by the teachers of the Christian religion, as they were essentially cruel and revengeful. In a work by an unknown author, written in the

early part of the tenth century, discovered and edited in 1865 by Rev. Oswald Cockayne, occur many curious prescriptions for the treatment of the insane. Not the least interesting is the following: "In case a man be lunatic, take a skin of mere swine (*i.e.*, a porpoise), work it into a whip, and swinge the man therewith. Soon he will be well. Amen."

In Cornwall, England, the traditional treatment of these cases was "bowsening," or ducking, and wells and pools there became as famous as Bethesda, where the poor patient was washed and soused, whether he would or no, to perfect his healing. No longer ago than 1871 a Scottish newspaper, the Inverness *Courier* of August 31, published an account of the midnight sousing in a small village of several lunatics, among whom, it says, "One young woman, strictly guarded, was an object of great pity." Yet this was but the following out in the nineteenth century of a practice which had been carried on from time immemorial. In 1863, near that famous hospital whose consecrated name of "Bethlehem" was early corrupted into "Bedlam," there was dug up a skeleton, "in rude armor drest," fetters and shackles, a mute accuser of the generation that had pierced the very soul with iron, needing no bard to sing: —

> "Oh, death was grateful!
> Thus seamed with many scars,
> Bursting these prison bars,
> Up to its native stars
> My soul ascended."

Beautiful in contrast, however, was the attitude of the religious orders during the Dark Ages toward the unfortunate lunatic. The gray-walled monastery became in truth to him a refuge, an asylum; and the cowled and tonsured monk, breathing the benediction of brotherly love, intoned his "Vade retro Satanus," and sought to heal his brother with the waters of some holy well.

History does not record the date of the building of the first institution for the care of the insane; but at some time in the sixth century the monks of Jerusalem are known to have erected a hospital, or refuge, for the care of those of their number who should become bereft of their reason. A century or so later a curious legend spread throughout Europe. It was said that an Irish princess, horrified by the monstrous conduct of her own father toward her, fled into Belgium to escape from the clutches of her unnatural parent.

Hither she was pursued, and finally murdered in the chapel of St. Martin, where she had sought refuge. Here her tomb was erected; and here sprung up the town and community of Gheel, in consequence of the many visitors to the shrine of Saint Dymphna, which was the canonical name of this unfortunate girl. Healing virtue for minds diseased was religiously believed to emanate from her tomb; and the deep furrows worn in the pavement by the knees of thousands upon thousands of her votaries, as they made their ninefold transits on nine successive days, bear mute witness to the faith of those who founded Gheel. This famous community, therefore, originated from the lodging by the peasants of the chronic insane who came for healing to Saint Dymphna's shrine. For over eighteen hundred years has this place furnished an object-lesson to the world; and to-day we are doing but little better, on the whole, than carrying out the central ideas so strongly exemplified there,—that the insane man may have, does have, a place and use, instead of abuse, in a community; that he is not a fiend incarnate, fit only to be herded as the swine, but that he is a human being, having feelings and sensibilities as such, and may more largely mingle with his saner fellows, to enjoy the common amenities of life, as well as the stinted air and attenuated light of those huge piles of architecture which have been euphemistically characterized as "lunacy cathedrals."

The community of Gheel was in no sense a refuge or asylum for the insane, but was a village of organic growth, founded as the result of an abiding faith in the cure of insanity. The votaries at Saint Dymphna's tomb were pilgrims, not prisoners. Nearly a century before the "Santa Maria," freighted with its little band of adventurous Spaniards, had anchored off the shores of this New World, another Spaniard, whose soul was filled not with the lust for glory nor for gold, but with the "milk of human kindness," founded a hospital at Valencia for the protection and care of those poor lunatics who were wandering from place to place because they had been driven out from the abodes of men. This hospital was the Cara de Orates, and the benignant Spaniard was a begging friar.

The priory in Bishopsgate Street, London, dedicated to the Order of St. Mary of Bethlehem in the thirteenth century, was two centuries later a hospital for lunatics. The familiar phrase, "as noisy as Bedlam," exemplifies the turbulent character of the inmates of this

early hospital as well as the profane corruption of that consecrated name of the birthplace of our Saviour. Public care of the insane, however, was never thought of until near the close of the eighteenth century; and then they were housed and herded in jails or poor-houses, ironed, chained, and whipped for the crime of being sick. No physicians supervised or dwelt with the insane during this period. One writer thus describes the typical insane institution of the eighteenth century: "The building was gloomy, low, and confined, without windows to the front, every chink barred and grated,— a perfect gaol. As you enter, a creak of bolts and clank of chains are scarcely distinguishable amid the wild chorus of shrieks and sobs which issue from every apartment. Your conductor has the head and visage of a Carib, carries a whip and a large bunch of keys, and speaks in harsh monosyllables." Such was the London Bedlam; such was the Bicêtre of Paris more than two thousand years after the benignant teachings of Hippocrates, the pagan, and eighteen hundred years after the advent of "peace on earth and good will to men." But Christian charity was not to be shut out forever from the dark retreats of human torture. The unfortunate sick and sense-bereft could not be relegated eternally to the dogs and to the devil. There are always some hearts that beat in quick response to human suffering. There are always some men ordained by fate, or otherwise, to make or mark the epochs of human history.

When human passion was running riot in France, when human blood was being freely shed in Paris, a noble and courageous physician was appointed to the charge of the famous Bicêtre, that infamous insane prison-house. His inner nature was deeply stirred at the dreadful things he saw and heard: human beings chained half-naked, half-fed, and unwashed; men in cages of iron, covered with stripes of the cruel lash, stinted of water, stinted of air, stinted of sunlight, with only a little loose straw to interpose at night between their shivering forms and cold, damp stones; their wants attended to by jailers armed with sticks and re-enforced by dogs. Overcome by this terrible picture which burned itself into his very soul, stimulated by a courage born of conviction, the great Pinel boldly applied at once to Couthon, one of the leaders of the French Revolution, for permission to strike off the shackles from his insane charges. Such an audacious request was immediately regarded with suspicion, and the reply of this ruler in "the Reign of Terror" was characteristic

of the distrust of the times. His answer was as follows: "Citizen, I shall go to-morrow to Bicêtre to inspect it; but woe to thee if thou hidest the enemies of the people among thy lunatics!" True to his promise, Couthon, who could not appreciate the noble philanthropy that prompted the illustrious Pinel, visited in company with him this "great French prison for the insane"; but completely relieved of his distrust, when he viewed the unfortunate spectacle which presented itself, he turned to the great physician, and said in deep disgust, "Look here, citizen, art thou insane thyself, that thou wilt unchain such animals?"

Pinel, filled with the enthusiasm of his purpose, undaunted by the opposition of his fellows, began his work of humanity at the close of the eighteenth century, and in less than one week he had removed the chains from fifty-three insane patients; and from that time he wrote and preached the gospel of one who loved his fellow-men. He was the pioneer of an era of reform; and the work he began at the Bicêtre, in striking off the fetters of the unfortunate sufferers from mental disease, awakened the interest of the whole civilized world, was the beginning of the downfall of the "gloomy mad house" of the past, and made possible the evolution of the modern hospital for the insane. While France was thus making an immortal record for the treatment of her unfortunate insane, across the Channel the English public were being edified with some revelations concerning the cruel and inhuman treatment practised at the "Old York Asylum" upon the unfortunates there confined. Then it was that one of the now most famous names in mental medicine soon came to be on every tongue. Hardly less of a pioneer than Pinel was William Tuke, who, with the aid and consent of the Society of Friends, founded in 1792 "The York Retreat," the synonym for a place of healing as well as a place of rest for the insane. In writing its history in 1813, Mr. Samuel Tuke says, "The Retreat has been conducted from the beginning upon the principle that the utmost practicable degree of gentleness, tenderness, and attention to the comforts and feelings of the patients was in the first place due to them as human beings, and in the next place was infinitely the most promising means of effecting their recovery."

Working along the same lines, actuated by the same broad and practical philanthropy, two great and noble men created an epoch in the history of public and private charity which marks the dawning

of the nineteenth century and places them among the few immortals who have served best their day and generation, by performing a striking service for their fellow-men in the face of ignorant and powerful opposition. Thus, though Pinel and Tuke are long since dust, they have a broader, sweeter life to-day in the hearts of a more enlightened, if not a more generous, posterity. They live in the atmosphere of freedom that pervades every modern hospital: they live because they inspired others to take up the work where they laid it down. Had Hippocrates had an Esquirol, and Aurelianus a Conolly, it is possible that the tortures of the insane might not have been so forcibly and cruelly exemplified in the chains and cages of a Bicêtre, the fetters and shackles of a Bedlam, or the whips and terrors of an Old York.

The dawn of the nineteenth century was one of promise for both man and humanity. The splendid achievements of science, the wonderful discoveries, the marvellous inventions, and, best of all, the countless means for the relief and prevention of human suffering have made the century just closed the most notable epoch in the world's history since the birth of Jesus Christ. All the conditions and relations of human life have felt the influence of the stupendous strides made in the acquisition of knowledge, which must ultimately result in a permanent betterment of the race. With the century just closed practically began the humane treatment of the insane, while the preceding period has been properly characterized as the barbaric. The latter half of the nineteenth century exemplified the remedial period of treatment for these unfortunates. One very excellent writer, Dr. Van Gieson, of New York, has divided the history of the insane into four periods, namely: (1) The period of revenge; (2) the period of indifference; (3) the period of humanitarian and empirical treatment; (4) the period of scientific study, rational treatment, and preventive medicine.

The first period has already been briefly portrayed. The second period begins with the nineteenth century, and closes about 1850. This was the period of the object-lesson of humanity in the treatment of the insane, or the emancipation period, as it might in truth be called. It marked also the beginning of public care and the origin of a true public policy; and that policy seemed to be concerned chiefly with the keeping, the humane custody, of the unfortunate lunatic, a distinct species, as he was then considered, of the human race.

This idea was but a metamorphosis, a disenchantment, so to speak, of the devil-possessed of earlier times. In this period, science and common sense began to emerge from the penumbra of superstition and ignorance which had long enshrouded them; and everywhere there were signs of the birth of a broader rationalism than that which had been swallowed up in the mysticism of the Middle Ages. The "mad house" was doomed, and the idea of a refuge or an asylum for the insane began to be worked out in the centres of greater population and more advanced civilization. This was an era of extensive remodelling of old institutions, and the building of new ones under the influence of an enlightenment which was just beginning to be assimilated. But care was still the central thought, with personal, if not bodily restraint, and little or no remedial treatment. It was enough if the insane man was secure from doing harm, now that the public had awakened to the enormity of doing him harm, while his healing was a matter too insignificant to be seriously considered.

It was not until the last half of the nineteenth century that the idea of remedial or curative treatment became in any way prominent, which was coincident with the third period of Van Gieson. With the inculcation of this idea into the treatment of insanity there sprung up a new department of medical science,— psychiatry, which is the scientific ministering "to a mind diseased." No science has to-day a wider field of investigation. No science has been so little taught. It remains for the future to unfold its best secrets. It remains for the present century to enjoy its best fruits; while we of the present generation, with the hope born of prophetic vision, may venture to characterize it "as the new Prometheus which shall wrest from Nature the secrets of thought."

The hospital idea reached its highest and best exemplification in the nineteenth century; and, if we read the times aright, it is destined to exhibit most radical changes in the evolution of the century. The palatial — the Kirkbride — system of architecture has been replaced by the block system, and that, too, by cottages, until now we see the colony being planted here and there by the adventurous philanthropy of some liberal commonwealth, inspired, it may be, by the teachings of some modern Moses. There is evolution in these matters as in the history of the race; and here, just as there, the fittest shall survive.

With the advent of public care — and hence the origin of a public

policy in the treatment of the insane — there sprung up many evils, some of which have worked great injury to the unfortunates as well as to the community. On the threshold of public care of the insane comes public policy in the placing of the insane in institutions. There is no man who is not quick to resent the invasion of his personal rights; and especially is the American sensitive on this point, since his sturdy ancestors have bequeathed to him that venerable document which distinctly enunciates that "no state shall deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law." Public sentiment crystallizes in public laws, and the public policy in the commitment of the insane has often been as harsh and brutal as any treatment they might ever receive thereafter. There has not been so great uniformity in this matter as there has been in the architecture of the places of detention or sequestration.

Not many years ago a distinguished physician, before this very body, made an able plea for unification of state laws as to the commitment of the insane. Should we not be doing something in this matter, even if nothing more, as he says, than "affirmation and reiteration"? Public arraignment in a court of justice is putting the patient on a level with and oftentimes in the company of the criminal, thus giving the taint of crime to the tincture of disease. Are we sure that some future Solon, as he reads the statutory history of our times, will refrain from believing that insanity was once a crime as well as a disease? The problem has been to find that golden mean betwixt medicine and the law that shall give due process without delay, sanction without obstruction, and protection without parley, to the earliest and most efficient treatment of a brain diseased.

We should not pass over lightly at this time the pioneer and lasting efforts of the noble men who were not only the bright lights of the medical profession, but also served well their day and generation in their chosen calling of practical alienists. They might be said to have shaped to a large extent the public policy in the care of the insane for the greater part of the nineteenth century. Dr. Benjamin Rush, so closely connected with American independence, after twenty-nine years spent in its study, gave great stimulus to the scientific investigation of mental disease in the first decade of the century just closed. Ray and Kirkbride and Earle and Grundy and Godding were men who, living, directed the thought of a continent to the proper dealing with our insane neighbor, and, dying, their memory becomes a stimulus for the best solution of the problem.

In the latter part of the nineteenth century there has been slowly and insidiously reaching out to the management of our public institutions in many states the ruthless hand of the politician, until in many instances it threatens to strangle scientific investigation, dethrone official integrity, and dwarf the efforts of a generous and sympathetic public when it honestly strives to alleviate the distress of its fellow-man. It is not necessary to mention the states where this pernicious principle of "What shall it profit a man?" dominates the public policy of state care.

It was Horace Mann who first enunciated the principle that the dependent insane are wards of the state. The nineteenth century has witnessed the triumph of state care and the dawn of an era in which we now live developing the idea of home life more fully in the simpler and more appropriate architecture of the habitations, as well as the wiser and more beneficent policy in the distribution, amusement, and employment of the insane. We shall not at the closing of the present century, should we seek to visit the dwelling-places of those bereft of reason, "drive up to a formal hall and cold Doric portico, and be met by a smileless janitor, and then wait in sad expectancy the long-delayed coming of the doctor, in one of those vast, melancholy, unsympathetic parlors." No! The evolution of the century will be the working-out, not the perpetuation of defects. As the renowned Dr. Godding said to this Conference only a few years ago, "There is to be less laying of corner-stones, with appropriate ceremonies, but more ordinary brick-work, building to anticipate rather than to follow the needs of the insane, and so with no flourish of trumpets, but silently keeping step in the march of human brotherhood round the world."

LEGAL REQUIREMENTS FOR THE COMMITMENT OF THE INSANE.

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Permit me to state at the outset that what I shall have to say in this paper will have chief consideration for the interests of the insane. The interest of society and the state should be coextensive with these, and never in conflict with them. What is best for the insane ought not to be unsafe or unwise for those upon whom the moral or legal obligation rests for their protection and proper treatment. It is true that the protection and proper care of the insane is a burden on the sane and healthy,— a burden that is becoming greater year by year. It is true also that the presence of the unsound, in mind or body, among the healthy and sane, is to the latter always painful and often a real menace. Without burdens, however, we should never enjoy rest. Did we never see the defective or unsightly, we should not rightly appreciate the well-developed and the beautiful. Were there no danger in our way to be avoided, no difficulties to be surmounted, no effort required, we should be but moral eunuchs, without strength and without virility. Above all, we should find wanting in us the tender sympathy, and the exquisite sensibility toward the necessities of the more helpless, which are now the delicate aroma, the most precious and the most highly developed functions of our complex organization. Yes, the very dependence, the utter helplessness of the insane, the wreck which they show of those noblest attributes of our humanity, excite in us the profoundest sympathy. We are shocked and horrified at any evidence of their abuse or neglect.

All this is a beautiful subject for reflection, and in the abstract a true picture of our thoughts; but in the concrete we often fall short of our abstract ideal. The insane individual is often repulsive and an irritant to us in our desire for repose. He is poor, weak, and helpless, a painful impression, which we ask to have put away from us and out of our sight, only that we may be spared the unhappiness of his presence, and too often his very existence, when he is so secluded from us, is forgotten. If not forgotten, we grow to consider only the

burden, even in some instances begrudging him such comforts or such pleasures as his limited capacity or his weakness may make possible to him.

To give an intelligent answer to the inquiry which is the subject of this paper requires first a conception of what constitutes insanity. The old expression, a "dethronement of reason," is, for the purpose, perhaps as concise a reply as can be given. The insane act as they do, not because of an evil propensity, they do not deliberately and maliciously choose their line of conduct for the purpose of injury to their fellows, but because they are sick persons, and because this sickness is of such nature as prevents them from doing otherwise. They require restraint, protection, care, because they are sick of a disease which requires this treatment. A further reason is that with the dethronement of reason the insane are not able to themselves correctly judge of their own needs and are unwilling, because unable to properly estimate it, to be guided by the advice of their best friends. They are utterly helpless to judge intelligently as to what is requisite to their treatment. They cannot correctly estimate their own capacity, and through their disordered reason are continually misconstruing the acts and intentions of those about them.

The necessity, in their protection, care, and treatment, of acting contrary to their wishes and without their consent, has brought into existence institutions with special provisions for their detention as well as for their treatment. The care must be in most instances a compulsory one. To guard against the abuse of this compulsion, it is wisely provided in most civilized countries that this detention shall be under the control of a court. This most surely guards against the injustice of prejudice or the bias of personal interest. It is doubtful whether any substitute will ever be found for a judicial procedure in determining the proper treatment of the insane, or at least for a judicial review of the facts presented. This much I believe all who live among the insane will agree to be a necessity. At the same time such judicial action is of a wholly different character from the usual function of a court. The insane person is a sick person. His confinement in a hospital is simply and solely because his disease is of such character that either to remove it and to restore the patient to health, or to protect himself or others from its results, such hospital treatment and care is a necessity. It is the application of a remedy to a disease with a particular group of symp-

toms which requires such treatment. The sole reason for the interference of the court is that the remedy must often be applied forcibly and against the protest of the patient. It is because of this that it is wisely provided in most instances, also, that the court shall be properly instructed by the testimony and advice of competent medical authority. It is wisely recognized that the question to be determined is a medical question, purely and simply. It is: first, to determine whether there is such disease and consequent effect present as incapacitates the person from judging safely as to his own requirements; and, second, whether in the treatment of this disease it is either necessary or advisable to apply the restraint or the changed environment of a hospital of peculiar character. It goes without saying that, in determining these questions, the danger of injury to society is to be considered as well as the needs of the patient himself. It is not the determination of the right or wrong of a particular act or line of conduct. It is not a question of legal responsibility or business capacity. It is simply and solely the determination of the fact as to whether or not the patient is a sick person, and, if so, whether this sickness is of such character as to require institution care and treatment.

The capacity to control property is a question often growing out of this disease, but it is a wholly different question. Such capacity may be present when institution treatment and restraint are clearly indicated, and there may be such incapacity where there is no indication of necessity for or advantage from hospital treatment. For the determination of such a question it is doubtless often necessary, not only to have the protection of a court, instructed by medical advice and testimony, but the further safeguard of the judgment of business men and those whose experience best enables them to determine the question of business capacity and business safety.

So, also, as to the question of the moral or legal responsibility of the insane. This is another that often grows out of this disease, but it has but little relation to the question of the necessity for hospital treatment. Many a person is in such state of disease as to require the treatment of an institution who would be perfectly safe at liberty, as far as the rights of others are concerned; and in many of the insane who are in hospitals for the insane a very large degree of moral responsibility for their acts still remains.

It will be conceded, I think, that, when any act of the insane

requires the determination of responsibility before the law, the opinion of both judge and jury is a necessity. There are so many relations of the action which is the subject of inquiry, in such a case, to the social machine, with its rights and its relations, that the judgment of those who are in as nearly similar relations with the suspect is necessary to determine both the existence of the action and its index of degree of responsibility of the doer. In such cases, too, the action is against the peace and safety of society; and this of itself would require that the safety of the individual should be sacrificed to that of the greater number. The effect upon the person must be always subordinated to the results of the action upon society.

To return, however, to the commitment of the insane to a hospital for care and treatment, keeping in mind the object of such commitment, let us consider, as far as may be, the several requisites to insure the highest measure of success of such treatment. A further thought, too, which it may be best to keep before us in the consideration of the subject, is that this "dethronement of reason" carries with it a certain opprobrium which tends to make both patient and friends deny its existence or keep from the public the knowledge of its presence.

The disease of insanity differs in no respect from any other disease as to the great importance of early and correct treatment. The nature of the disease is such, and its development is often so insidious and gradual, that every encouragement should be held out for its prompt treatment when once it is recognized. It is usually only at this time that curative treatment is of much avail. I have known many a case to be so overlooked and so misjudged that the day of grace was wholly sinned away before any thought was permitted of the advisability of any treatment.

Arrangements for hospital treatment of the insane, therefore, should be such as to encourage the patient or his friends to promptly avail themselves of it. To this end the machinery for commitment should be as simple and uncomplicated as is consistent with the protection of the rights of the individual. It should be such as is readily available, and with the minimum degree of offence to the sensibilities of the patient or of those responsible for him. Above everything else, all unnecessary publicity or notoriety should be avoided. You may readily imagine how both the patient and his family would shrink from such an ordeal, and many a case has drifted into hopeless

dementia simply because of the dread of undergoing the publicity of a trial.

Is it not a cruel practice to hold up before a curious public such a sad misfortune as an attack of insanity? An inquiry by a court in such a case should be held as sacred as the examination of any other patient by a physician. The poor unfortunate is only unfortunate, not a criminal; and we have no more right to parade his calamity before the public gaze than a physician has to retail to others the professional secrets of his consultation-room.

Week after week I have impressed upon me the injustice of this practice. Let the court be satisfied that the rights of the patient are properly guarded, let everything be done that will insure this; but for the sake of both the patient and his friends do not humiliate them by publishing broadcast the fact, a wholly unnecessary cruelty, that John Smith is discovered to have a defect or derangement, which perchance is through no fault of his, in the part of his organization whose healthful action is the pride and glory of every son of man. If he must go for treatment for his disease to a hospital which is the dread of every strong and healthy man, why should the fact be announced to the public? If the court has already properly protected his interests, what good can come of it? Surely there is no necessity to feast the public with such misfortune.

It would seem, too, from this hasty review that the *sine qua non* of such a commitment should be skilled and trustworthy medical investigation. It is surely the work of the physician to determine the existence of disease. It should also be his duty to advise as to the proper treatment of it. This is the whole question. Whether the patient is dangerous to himself or others is but an incident in this investigation. It is true that it is an important symptom, and should be most thoroughly examined and carefully weighed; but it is only a partial view of any case, and the examination should take a much wider range than the mere determination of homicidal or suicidal tendencies.

To properly protect the rights of the patient, in view of the incapacity or unreliability of his own judgment, it is necessary that this testimony should be reviewed in the light of an impartial court. It should be shown to be competent, intelligent, and uninfluenced by prejudice or self-interest. As far as possible, the basis on which it rests should be shown to the court. But it is by no means always necessary that the

patient should himself be paraded before the court, to be held up to public view, excited by public examination, and the symptoms of the disease often exaggerated by contention and controversy over delusions that are not susceptible to reason or influenced by argument. If the impartial attitude of the judge should disclose any doubt as to the sufficiency of the testimony, then should there be by all means a personal examination of the patient in the presence of the court; but this should seldom be necessary.

To be most effective, this judicial procedure should be available as promptly as possible; and, whenever practicable, it should be had before the patient is sent to the hospital. Especially is this true in such cases as are required later to appear in court. I have known frequently quite injurious results to follow an appearance in court after the patient had been sent to the hospital and after the excitement incident to the change had subsided,

With every hospital for the treatment of insanity, provision should also be made for the admission of voluntary patients, without any judicial procedure. The continued stay of such a patient should never be compulsory; but, were such opportunity offered, I believe many a threatened attack would be averted, and both patient and the public saved much expense and annoyance.

Only physicians in certain lines of practice know how many cases abound in every community who for months have been conscious of failing health and approaching mental confusion and incapacity. Such physicians know, too, that they are often compelled to temporize and to advise other less advantageous forms of treatment, simply because an inquest of lunacy, with its publicity and its opprobrium, is the only means by which access to a hospital especially fitted for the patient's case is available for those whose means will not enable them to pay their way.

It may be urged against such ready commitment to hospitals for the insane that it would permit many unnecessary or unjust admissions, but I do not believe it would do so. As matters are now, far more danger is done to both patient and society by impediments to the ready commitment of the insane than by their unnecessary or unjust confinement. In fact, after an experience of a quarter of a century, embracing perhaps ten thousand cases, while I have known of a number of habeas corpus proceedings which have resulted in the release of the patient, I cannot now recall a single well-established

case in which its future history did not give sufficient proof that the original commitment had been justifiable.

On the other hand, does not the public press teem with the reports of tragedy after tragedy due to the failure of some one to properly estimate the condition of the patient? For this neglect I regret to say that the family physician is often in part to blame. Even among medical men the notion is prevalent that insanity does not exist unless there is actual incoherence or the presence of well-established delusions. Self-condemnation, hypochondria, melancholy, an unusually suspicious attitude toward others, or extreme irritability, are often not properly interpreted, but left to grow and progress until the dénouement is an act that startles and shocks every one by its fearful results.

A further conclusion which would seem reasonable from the foregoing is that the medical advice furnished the court should be based upon as wide experience in the observation and care of the insane as the conditions permit. It is a lamentable fact that among physicians in the general practice of medicine there is much want of knowledge of the nature of insanity and the indicia of its diagnosis, prognosis, and proper treatment. This knowledge, in fact, can only be obtained by a personal contact with the insane. For this reason it would seem of advantage that the medical examiners should be regularly appointed officers of the court, selected with reference to fitness and called in all proper cases, as the number they are called to examine will constantly qualify them the better for their work.

There should also be large discretion given the authorities in charge of every hospital for the care of the insane in the matter of releases from hospital treatment. The fact is that in most cases nothing less than actual experiment in the environment of home life will determine whether or not recovery from an attack of insanity will prove permanent. Trial visits should therefore be allowed as careful discretion may seem to indicate. Errors in judgment will result, it is true, but these cannot be avoided under any circumstances; and stay in a hospital, beyond the time necessary for such restoration as will enable the patient to return to his former place in the outer world, is not only not advisable, but further unfits the patient for resuming his former position. The same rules should, in fact, govern in both the commitment and release of the insane as in the hospital treatment of any other disease. Is the patient the

subject of the disease of insanity? If so, is it of such form and degree as will be benefited by hospital treatment? Do the interests of the patient or of society require his sequestration? Can he safely be given opportunity to try to sustain his former place in society? Is his disease so far removed that it does not require further special or hospital treatment?

All these are questions to be determined from a purely medical standpoint. They are deductions to be drawn from a study of the symptomatology of a disease, and are consequently the rightful work of medical authority.

Every symptom shown by the insane is but the expression of disordered function of physical structures. Let the public be educated to so view it. Let them understand that the hospital treatment of this disease is in no sense different from the hospital treatment of any other disease which cannot well be treated in a private home. Make this hospital treatment as accessible as any other hospital treatment, throwing about it only such safeguards as its compulsory character may require. Encourage the public to take advantage of this hospital treatment at the period when it will be most efficacious.

Such, we take it, are reasonable conclusions from this brief review; and such we believe to be justified by experience in the management of the insane and in their hospital care.

DIETARIES OF INSANE HOSPITALS AND OTHER PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

BY W. O. ATWATER,

PROFESSOR OF CHEMISTRY IN WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.

I am informed by one of the officers in charge of charitable institutions in New York that not far from 100,000 people of the dependent and delinquent classes are housed, clothed, and fed in the hospitals, asylums, prisons, and other public institutions in the state, and that the care of these people costs about $26,000,000 per year, of which some $6,000,000 are expended for food. It is natural to ask, Are these people being fed in the best ways,— in the ways that are most advantageous for them and most economical for the tax-payer? Cannot scientific inquiry be so utilized as to improve the diet and diminish the cost? On our farms, in our factories, in our commercial establishments, on our railroads, in our shops, in our municipal enterprises,— indeed, almost everywhere,— the results of scientific research are being put to practical use. It would seem that they ought to be capable of being utilized more than they now are in the dietetic management of public institutions.

This view was taken by the New York State Commission in Lunacy, which invited me, some three years ago, to undertake an inquiry into the food economy of the hospitals for insane under its charge. The president, Dr. Wise, first spoke to me about it. He said that what was wanted especially was a dietary standard; that is, a statement which would show the kinds and quantities of food materials proper for the nourishment of the people in those institutions.

Such a standard could be expressed in terms of nutritive ingredients of food and also in terms of kinds and amounts of different food materials which would meet the demands of a given number of persons for a given time,— for instance, either one person for a day or a hundred persons for a month, as the case may be. I said at once that I should not know how to set up such a standard without a good deal of inquiry into the conditions of food supply and the physiological demands of the population of the hospitals, but added that, if the Commission should choose to institute such an inquiry, I would be

glad to assist. The result has been an investigation out of which a number of interesting facts have come. Some are very suggestive.*

If the state of New York is caring for 100,000 men, women, and children, and is expending $6,000,000 a year for their food, and is doing so with the reasonable certainty that those people may be better fed for less money, is it not fair to assume that the general subject of the feeding of the wards of the public in state, county, and municipal and private institutions in the country at large is a matter worthy of careful consideration by the National Conference of Charities and Correction? That the importance of this subject is coming to be more and more strongly felt is, I think, proven very clearly by the inquiries that are being made in other places as well as in New York, and by the interest manifested by a large and increasing number of public officers and public-spirited citizens. This is a case in which careful investigation is the only sure foundation for improvement.

We may take the experience obtained in the New York hospitals as an illustration of the ways in which dietary investigations may be carried out and what kind of results may be expected. Of course, I do not mean to say that either the methods or results would be the same in all cases. What I wish to urge upon the Association is the principle that the subject is one of large importance, that the time is ripe for its more thorough study, that such study is feasible, and that its fruits may be an ample reward for the labor and expense.

Inquiries into the Diet of New York Hospitals for the Insane.— While the primary object of the inquiry into the hospital dietaries has been to establish a "dietary standard," or "standard ration," for their use, information was also sought regarding other subjects, as the kinds, amounts, and actual nutritive values of the food materials supplied to the hospitals; the amounts of food actually eaten by the hospital population; the losses of food by shrinkage and waste in the storeroom, the kitchen, and dining-room; the ways by which more or less of the material rejected in the kitchen and dining-room — or, at best, used as food for swine — may be saved and utilized for the nourishment of the hospital population; the ways in which the more expensive foods may at times be replaced by those which cost less, but are equally nutritious and wholesome; the

* The Tenth and Eleventh Annual Reports of the New York State Commission in Lunacy contain the first two reports of this investigation. The Twelfth Report of this commission contains an abstract of the third, which is to appear in a volume by itself. All are to be obtained from the New York State Commission in Lunacy, Albany, N.Y.

methods of cooking the food, and possible ways by which more palatable dishes might be prepared and at less cost; how the table, also, may be more attractive; and, finally, how the diet in general may be best adapted to the health and comfort of both patients and employees.

In carrying out the inquiry, two considerations have been paramount,— the welfare of the people in the hospitals and the interests of the tax-payers at whose expense they are supported.

The Purpose of the Inquiry.— Humanitarian and Pecuniary Objects. I must ask you to bear with me if I enter somewhat into scientific details. Indeed, one thing I wish especially to urge is that scientific inquiry is one of the means we need to use, and that it may greatly aid in promoting the best interests of the general cause in which we are all interested.

Let me also urge the wisdom of considering carefully the pecuniary side of the management of our charitable and penal institutions. Most of us here are interested chiefly in the welfare of the people in these institutions. But we must not forget that the bills have to be paid, and that, the more money we can save in the kitchen and dining-room, the more we shall have to use elsewhere. The less the cost of the food, the more there will be to spend for the things that gratify the eye and the mind and help to the contentment and the education we seek to provide. And, what is no less to the point, the more economy we practise, when economy is feasible, the more willing and generous will be the support of the tax-payer and the private giver upon whose favor depends all we are striving to accomplish. But this is a digression. Let us come back to the inquiry in the New York hospitals.

The plan has been to study the statistics of food supply in the hospitals; to find by weighings and measurements how much food is actually eaten by the different classes of the population; to examine into the methods of selection, handling, cooking, and serving the food; to make chemical analyses, when necessary; to learn the composition and nutritive values of the food materials; to employ skilled experts to examine into the best methods of cooking and of kitchen and dining-room management; to plan experiments upon the proper feeding of patients of different classes; and, finally, to learn how the proper officers and employees — and especially the chefs and cooks — may be best enabled and encouraged, not only to carry out, but also to devise, methods for improvement.

How the Inquiry was carried out.— At the outset the Commission placed in my hands the figures for the ration allowance then in use, and also detailed statistics regarding the food supply of the hospitals. The first thing to be done was to compare these with the ordinarily accepted physiological standards for people of different classes.

Experimental research has made it possible to determine very nearly the nutritive values of different food materials, and has also given estimates of the demands of people of different classes for nourishment. As a basis for such calculations, physiologists use the amounts of the different kinds of nutritive ingredients or nutrients.

Food has two general uses: the first is to build up the body and repair its waste; the second is to supply it with energy for warmth and work. Of course, this is a very imperfect statement of the uses and value of food. But it helps us to explain the fact that food materials, dietary standards, and actual dietaries are compared by use of two factors,— (1) the amount of material for building the bodily machine and keeping it in repair and (2) amount of energy, or the fuel value for warmth and work.

The ordinarily accepted measure for building material is the quantity of protein or nitrogenous substance. The measure of the fuel value is the calorie, or heat unit. Thus it has been estimated that an ordinary man at light muscular work needs, on an average, about 112 grams (4 ounces) of protein and 3,000 calories of energy in his daily food, while a man without muscular work will be reasonably well nourished with 90 grams of protein and 2,400 calories of energy. Women and children need and use less of nutritive ingredients and energy in their food than men. In general, the greater the amount of work, the larger the demand for food, and *vice versa*. Some of the hospital population, especially the employees, are engaged in active work, and would need more than the above standard provides for "men at light muscular work"; but the great majority have very little physical exercise. With some the activity of the brain and the nervous tension are considerable, but the best evidence at hand implies that this does not generally involve a large demand for nutriment. On the other hand, a large share of the population live on a very low plane of mental as well as physical activity; and the amount of nutriment they need is very small indeed.*

* The amounts of nutrients and energy provided in different food materials are now tolerably well known, as may be seen from extensive tables of composition of food materials given in the Report on Dietaries for Hospitals for the Insane in the Tenth Annual Report of the New York Commission in Lunacy. The same report gave a number of dietary standards for people of different classes.

The first step in the inquiry, then, was to find how much of nutrients and energy was actually furnished in the food supplied to the hospitals and to compare the figures thus obtained with those of current physiological standards. Taking the data furnished by the Commission, and applying the figures obtained from chemical analysis, it appeared that the food supplied to the hospitals (food purchased) for the fiscal year 1897–98 furnished, per person per day — *i.e.*, for men and women together — 113 grams of protein and 3,490 calories of energy.*

Just how much a proper physiological standard would call for is a question to be answered only by the test of actual experiment. Unfortunately, the needs of the different classes of hospital population for nutriment are not definitely known. It was, however, possible to make a tentative estimate of those needs; and it was evident that such an estimate would be very far below the food supply. In other words, the hospitals were supplying a great deal more food than the people needed.

The first step toward establishing a standard would be to find out exactly how much the people were actually eating. This would be accomplished by dietary studies. The next step would be to try experiments with different classes of the population, modifying the dietary in one way or another, and observing the effects upon the health, comfort, and welfare of the population,

Accordingly, we set ourselves to work to make a number of dietary studies in the St. Lawrence, Long Island (Brooklyn Division), Kings Park, and Willard Hospitals. One or more chemists who had had experience in such investigations visited the hospitals for this purpose, and were there assisted by members of the hospital force and by persons especially employed for the purpose. The general plan consisted in observing the actual quantities of different food materials supplied to a given number of patients of a given class for a certain period,— as, for instance, a week. The food materials themselves were weighed, as were the amounts served at the table and the amounts left uneaten. Chemical analyses were made, when necessary. The number of persons who were nourished by the food in each case was carefully noted. We thus had the data for determining just how much of nutrients and energy was contained in

* On the common supposition that the women eat 0.8 as much as men, these figures correspond to 128 drams of protein and 3,875 calories of energy per man per day. The studies in the New York hospitals imply the female patients there eat not over 0.7 as much as the male patients.

the food served at the table, the food actually eaten, and the table waste. Such experiments were made not only with patients of different classes, but also with attendants in the hospitals. The results of 56 dietary studies in these hospitals are now completed.

One of the most interesting results is in the quantities of food actually eaten. The average for the whole hospital population is only 73 grams of protein and 2,306 calories of energy per day. Taking different classes, the average for employees, men and women together, was 2,670 calories. For patients the averages ranged from 2,825 calories for men at more or less active work to 1,705 for women with light work and 2,100 for men and 1,570 for women of the infirm class.

The figures for the population as a whole, 2,306 calories, were much below a tentative standard of 2,625 calories, which was considered as decidedly liberal, in the report for 1897–98. Indeed, instead of being larger, they were much smaller than I had been led to suppose would prove to be the actual physiological demand. Considering the large amount of food supplied, I had been led to assume that the quantities actually eaten would be rather more than were really needed for nourishment. I should not have been greatly surprised if the amount eaten had reached 2,500 or even 2,600 calories per person per day. I am not prepared to say that 2,300 calories represents exactly the average food eaten per person per day in the New York hospitals for the insane. These, however, are the figures found in a considerable number of studies, and it would be rather strange if they should be found to vary greatly from the actual average.

The investigations do not yet suffice to establish an exact physiological standard as regards a standard dietary. Upon the basis of the work done, however, I have ventured to suggest a standard, regarding which I quote the following from the last report to the Commission: —

We have to distinguish between the dietary standard, which is intended to meet the physiological need for nourishment, and the actual hospital allowance, which should be the amount in the dietary standard and enough more to make up for shrinkage and waste.

The bearing of the figures for food eaten upon the actual need for nourishment — that is, upon the proper physiological standard for the hospital dietary — is very important. The supply of food was abundant. It was not always as attractive as it might have been. A hos-

pital table is not a hotel table, nor is it like a table of a well-to-do private family. But the food was wholesome, the quantities were ample; and, such as it was, the patients had all they wanted. It is not easy to believe that their actual need for nourishment could be very greatly in excess of the amounts they chose to eat. Doubtless many of them ate less than was best for them. Probably many ate more than they needed. It is possible that on the average they would have been better off if they had eaten more, but this is a question that can be decided only by actual test.

For the dietary standard, I now propose 85 grams of protein and 2,500 calories of energy per person per day.

My present impression is that 2,400 or, perhaps, 2,300 calories would be ample instead of the 2,500 proposed, and I recommend that the experiments and observations in the hospitals needed to decide the questions be provided for.*

For the hospital allowance enough should be added to the physiological standard to make up for the loss by shrinkage and waste. The amount of this addition is a question of hospital management, which it is beyond my province to pronounce upon. My personal judgment, however, is that in view of the newness of the subject, the not infrequent lack of the cold storage facilities needed for the best preservation of food, and the very frequent lack of chefs and skilled cooks, who have the special training needed to secure the maximum utilization of the food with the minimum of waste, it would not be wise to immediately reduce the food supply below the present ration allowance. That allowance, while probably less than the actual food supply, is 29 per cent. larger than the dietary standard above proposed and 40 per cent. larger than the amount which the investigations now imply to be actually eaten.

The difference between the food purchased and that eaten represents what are technically termed "shrinkage" (*i.e.*, loss in the storeroom) and "waste" (*i.e.*, the food material left uneaten in the kitchen and the dining-room).

The figures thus far obtained imply that shrinkage and waste at the time the inquiry began made at least one-fourth and apparently nearer one-third the total amount of the food supplied.

Waste of Food.— This brings us to a very important economic consideration. The food actually supplied to the hospitals in previous years was estimated to furnish 3,490 calories per person per day. The amount actually eaten by the people whose dietaries were actually studied was just about two-thirds as much. If, then, the food consumption of the people whose dietaries were studied fairly repre-

* The reports indicate how these figures for nutrients and energy may be translated into terms of ordinary food materials. They also discuss in detail the kinds, amounts, and costs of food materials found in and appropriate for dietaries of different classes of the hospital population.

sented the food actually eaten by the population of the hospital system as a whole in 1898-99, and the food supplied for that year was the same as was estimated to have been furnished in 1897–98, with the same ration allowance, then we must conclude that only two-thirds of the actual nutritive material of the food was eaten by the people for whom it was intended, and that one-third was utilized only in so far as it was fed to swine and converted into pork. The report referred to says, in substance: —

Viewed from the pecuniary standpoint, this is an important matter. The annual cost of the food supplied to the New York state hospitals at the present rate is about $1,125,000. One-third of this would be about $375,000 a year. Even if more accurate observations should show that this estimate of the amount of food not eaten is an exaggeration, the actual figures must certainly be very large. One-fourth of the whole would be about $280,000.

To one who has not looked into the matter, these figures for "waste" * are surprising. I have come to believe, however, that the existence of even so large a difference between food supplied and food eaten, as the above figures imply, is quite in the natural order of things. In the ordinary household, it is comparatively easy to regulate the food supply so that it shall not be materially in excess of the amounts actually eaten. The eating habits of the family are known to the housewife. In economical families the food is selected and cooked in such way as to meet the individual tastes and needs of the members, and the kitchen wastes are not large. Each person selects the kinds and amounts desired, and the portions not eaten at one meal are for the most part saved and utilized, so that the quantities of table waste are not large. But even in private families and boarding-houses these amounts may be considerable. In nearly 200 dietary studies made under my own supervision in different parts of the United States, they have ranged from practically none to 8 or 10 per cent. of the whole food in private families; while in boarding-houses, even when economy was sought, it has reached 10 and, in individual instances, nearly 20 per cent.

The economical handling of food in large establishments, like hospitals for the insane, is a more difficult matter than in ordinary families or boarding-houses. The number of people in the kitchen is smaller in proportion to the number of people to be fed. Many of

* To avoid misunderstanding, it may be explained that the inedible portion of the food, such as bone and gristle of meat, shells of eggs, and skin and seeds of vegetables, are counted as "refuse," and not as waste. The terms "shrinkage" and "waste," as here used, apply to the parts of the edible portion of the food; *e.g.*, the flesh of meat and shell contents of eggs, which, though valuable for nourishment, are not utilized. Of the food material here counted as waste, a large part is fed to swine and transformed into pork. It would not be fair, therefore, to reckon the waste as entirely lost. How much is thus saved and what is the actual loss, I have no means of determining.

the employees lack training. They have neither the incitement to economy that the housewife feels nor have they her conveniences for enforcing it. The leaks are more numerous and harder to stop, and the aggregate amount of loss much greater than one can well realize until he has seen the statistics. No one is especially to blame that losses occur. To avoid all waste of food is impracticable. The best that can be done is to reduce the waste to a minimum. The experience in establishments where large numbers of people are to be fed is like that in our great business enterprises where the need of closer economizing is coming to be felt. What is wanted is to first find out the facts and, second, to devise means for improvement.

Such loss of food is neither unnatural nor unusual nor easy to avoid. A good deal of it is inevitable. Nevertheless, it will, in my judgment, be possible to provide for the better utilization of the food, so that the loss may be materially reduced. This can be accomplished by a better understanding of the nutritive value of the food and of the demands of the people for nourishment and by improved methods of storing, handling, and especially of cooking and serving the food. I am inclined to think the best opportunities for improvement will be in the hospital kitchens. It will also be possible to provide more palatable and more attractive nourishment for hospital population and at lower cost.

Practical Steps toward Improvements of Dietaries.—Results of Experience.— In order to make the practical application of the studies in the New York hospitals more effective in the kitchen and dining-room, the services of Miss Maria Daniell, a lady who, in addition to an understanding of the physiological and economic values of food, has had large experience in cookery and practical dietetics, were secured for several months in the St. Lawrence Hospital. Miss Daniell was assisted by Miss M. E. Troy, a lady likewise of very superior skill in cookery and kitchen administration. The purpose of their work was to study the general subject of hospital cookery in a practical way and devise methods for improvement. The results at the St. Lawrence Hospital were very satisfactory in themselves, and they also brought out clearly the great usefulness of such practical application of science in hospital dietaries. Dr. William Mabon, the superintendent of the St. Lawrence Hospital, who has taken a very intelligent and active interest in the general inquiry, has made a statement to the Commission in Lunacy from which it appears that, in his judgment, the advantage to his institution has been very marked.

One outcome has been a number of recipes and directions for cooking which are being printed in leaflet form for hospital chefs and

cooks. Their purpose is indicated by the general title of each, "New York State Hospital Dietary Experiments." The object is not simply to provide a series of rules to be followed, like those of a cook-book, but more especially to encourage ambitious chefs and cooks to examine carefully into the subjects, to try the different recipes thoughtfully, to measure and weigh the quantities accurately, to note and report the results, and to devise and suggest improvements. It has been evident from the start that one of the most valuable features of an inquiry of this kind would be the stimulating of intelligent observation and inquiry in a practical way by the men charged with the responsibility of the kitchen and dining-room management. It is of very little consequence whether a given recipe stands the test or not. It is of great consequence that the employees be encouraged to use their best intelligence and their best efforts to make the most palatable and nutritious dishes from the least expensive materials.

Another phase of the effort toward improvement in the New York state hospitals is the employment of ladies who have been trained in domestic science to look after the kitchen and dining-room management. Under the direction of Dr. O. M. Dewing, now superintendent of the Kings Park Hospital, who rendered very useful assistance in the dietary studies previously referred to, the services of Miss Ellen R. Rushmore have been secured in the latter institution, and with most gratifying results.

Dr. A. W. Hurd, of the Buffalo State Hospital for the Insane, has favored me with an account of some things which he has observed in his own institution during the past three years as an outcome of the dietary investigations previously referred to.

At the outset attention was called to the amount of waste, and also to the possibilities of improvement in some of the details of the cooking and serving of food. The attention of officers and employees was directed to this subject. The books of the hospital show a very material reduction in the per capita cost of the food. This saving, as based upon the per capita cost of the first year, is estimated by Dr. Hurd as 13.7 per cent. What makes this reduction the more striking is the fact that it has been effected notwithstanding a material advance in the price of a considerable number of the food materials. At the same time there has been an improvement in the diet as a whole. One feature has been the addition of so-called "extras" to the diet of the attendants. I have before me a copy of the dietary

schedule of the hospital for the week ending April 21, 1901. The dishes are given for breakfast, dinner, and supper of each day. Those for the inmates are such as may be ordinarily found in a well-managed institution; but, besides these, there are the "attendants' extras" for nearly every meal. They include such things as fried ham, cold meat, muffins, beef hash, coffee cake, potatoes, fried eggs, toast, fruit sauce, buns, and the like. This does more than please the employees. It is a shrewd way of securing better service without increase of salary.

Dr. Hurd says: —

> While we cannot say that all this is due entirely to the food investigations, and while some of it is due to care and vigilance in buying, yet we think a great deal of it is attributable to the extra care and attention which have been paid to the cooking, distributing, service, and prevention of waste which are the outcome of the investigations.

He adds: —

> The co-operation in this work has not been a burden or drag on the institution, but has, we think, resulted in a direct benefit to the dietary of the inmates, the satisfaction and contentment of all concerned, and has been a marked source of economy.

A large part of this saving in cost, while the diet has been improved, Dr. Hurd attributes to the reduced waste of food. In this connection he has a rather amusing story. As the care in this respect gradually began to make itself effective, complaints began to come from the man in charge of the piggery that the feed was getting short. The result was that corn-meal was bought, and the number of swine reduced. The economy that was so fruitful in the hospital was inconvenient in the piggery, but it was a good deal cheaper to buy pork or fatten pigs on corn-meal than to use bread and meat for the purpose.

Improvement of Dietaries.— Hygienic and Humanitarian Considerations.— In the same report to the New York Commission in Lunacy I have ventured to make the following statements: —

> The reduction of cost is not the only object, nor, from my own standpoint at least, is it the chief object of an inquiry such as this. The humanitarian considerations, it seems to me, should be uppermost. Some of the inmates of the hospital may be cured. Whatever can be done to facilitate their cure is certainly desirable. Of the

incurables, a large number have a keen appreciation of the comforts and discomforts of their situation. They are men and women like ourselves. Some of them are our relatives and friends. It is not due to either their fault or our virtue that they are there instead of us. To do away as far as possible with their discomforts, to provide as much as possible the things which contribute to their happiness, is our plainest duty. One of the encouraging features of modern philanthropy is found in the increased attention given to just such considerations as these in the care of the dependent classes.

What I wish to urge here is that the fitting of the food to the demands of health on the one hand, and the making of the dishes palatable and the table attractive on the other, are a proper part of the general policy of hospital improvement.

If this investigation shall be continued in fitting ways, I believe it will be possible to learn much of the methods by which the food may be better adapted to the actual needs of the patients of the different classes. I believe also that it will be possible to devise improvements in the cooking and serving of the food which will fit it better to the varying tastes of the hospital population and at the same time make the tables more attractive. The advantage of this will be threefold. It will help to make the hospital life less wearisome to the patients. It will be hygienically beneficial. And it will help to the better economizing of the food supply, and thus reduce the cost.

Although I have had little experience in other charitable institutions, such as hospitals for the sick, poorhouses, and asylums and reformatories for children and youth, it seems to me that the same general principles apply in them also.

As regards prisons and reformatories for adults, I speak with less assurance of the æsthetic side of the question, for I do not know whether the experience of the penologist would justify the sympathies of the layman. But, as regards the economic side of the question, I cannot see why there should not be as much room for improvement in prisons as in other institutions. Nor do I quite see why improvement in prison diet may not be one of the corrective rather than the punitive features of prison life. Considerable attention has been paid to prison dietaries in Europe. Is the subject not worthy of more careful attention than it has yet received in the United States?

May I not also make a special plea for the study of this subject in connection with orphanages, asylums, and other institutions for the care of dependent children? From what some of my friends in your association tell me of their experience in such institutions, it seems to

me that they represent an especially promising field for effort in this direction.

Conclusion.— Here, as elsewhere, we are trying to improve. The improvement must be gradual. To make it most successful will require careful and long-continued experiment and observation. The methods of experiment and practical application of the result can, I believe, be gradually developed in the institutions themselves, so that their own officers and employees will be able to accomplish the desired object in the most economical, useful, and satisfactory ways. Steps already taken in these directions are bringing results gratifying in themselves and promising for the future. There are several reasons for anticipating success in this effort. One is the hearty interest shown by the officers and managers of public institutions. Another is the fact that a great deal of attention has been given to the study of dietetics and food economy during the past few decades. A large part of this inquiry has been carried on in Europe, but of late it has been introduced quite actively in the United States. An especially favorable circumstance is the provision by the United States government of an appropriation for special inquiry in this direction, which is being carried out under the auspices of the United States Department of Agriculture, and in co-operation with scientific, educational, and philanthropic institutions in the United States from Maine to California and from Minnesota to Alabama. The larger investigations have made a foundation for these inquiries such as would otherwise have involved a large amount of labor and expense. The most encouraging thing of all, however, is the spirit which is being developed in the community at large, and is so very prominent in the labors as well as in the meetings of this association,— a spirit which combines two of the notable features of our modern thought and life. One of these is careful study of our great economic, social, and ethical problems: the other is the self-sacrificing labor of philanthropy. This union of the spirit of science and the spirit of service is doing wonderful things and doing them in many ways. One of the ways of thus helping to the better care of the dependent and delinquent classes is the study and the improvement of their food and nutrition.

VIII.

Care of Feeble-minded and Epileptics.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE CARE OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTIC IN THE PAST CENTURY.

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A humane and remedial treatment of the defective obtained in very ancient times. It is recorded that in Egypt the temples of Saturn, and in Greece the Asclepia, were resorted to by lunatics; and the treatment was not markedly different in principle from that of the present day. How long the influence of the classical medical writers, and especially of Hippocrates and Galen, continued it is difficult to say; but in the Middle Ages, and up to the middle of the eighteenth century, little attention was paid to the care or cure of the mentally defective. Objects of contempt or fear, they were more often brutally treated than tolerated for their buffoonery. There is good reason for believing that many were executed as criminals or witches. The lot of the idiot was, indeed, a hard one until the past century. Supposed to be possessed of devils, the Church condemned him to eternal punishment. A riddle to his physician, he was left to his fate. The law deprived him of his property, and the populace jeered and cursed him as an unhuman object.

But in the seclusion of the stricken home the broken heart of many a devoted mother, who, loving and hoping and believing from the faint response of appreciation to her devotion that her child was human, and that there must be a way to straighten out the tangled senses, anticipated faintly our present methods. Occasionally, a great heart, inspired by the spirit of humanity and soft-

ened by Christ-like zeal, extended the hand of charity. It is related that a devoted monk, far back in the sixteenth century, collected about him a dozen of these harmless beings and cared for them.

Whether the essential spirit of mankind progresses at an even pace with improved environment is an open question; but, beyond all comparison, the nineteenth century is the most notable period in the history of progress in the treatment of the defective, as in other respects. Though houses of detention or bedlams were instituted in the sixteenth century, yet even in the beginning of the nineteeth century no progress had been made in the humane care of lunatics, who were chained, caged, flogged, and starved; and no more tender care was given the epileptic or feeble-minded. The science that now mitigates and cures 20 per cent. of cases of insanity, the humanity and love that have established schools and homes for the feeble-minded and colonies and hospitals for the epileptic, are the product of the nineteenth century.

It is not strange that the defective classes did not earlier have humane care, for ignorance and intellectual darkness was the prevalent condition. Everywhere knowledge was dear and hard to acquire. Curiosity and certain opinions held regarding primitive man, and the possibility of man under certain conditions to revert to that state, led to the study and observance of several types of so-called wild persons, and evolved the fact that idiocy was a mental defect.

Itard, physician of the deaf-mute institution, for his studies and experimental researches with idiocy, was commended by the French Academy. With the publication of his studies in 1801 really began the literature on the treatment of idiocy. Other zealous students and keen observers soon took up the study of idiocy, and the work received more or less prominence in France. During the first one-third of the century several efforts were made to teach idiots; but the greatest success was attained by Edward Seguin, a pupil of the noted Itard, who opened a private school in the year 1837. Afterward he came to the United States, where his work and writings became standards for all interested in the training of idiots. Within a short period, several schools were opened in different parts of Europe.

Our own country, however, was the first to make a systematic attempt at the education of idiots in a school. In the year 1818, and

for a few years afterward, several of these defectives were received and given instruction at the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Hartford, Conn., and some considerable improvement made in their mental and physical conditions. From that time to the present, the history of the struggle to establish institutions under state care by early pioneers and philanthropists has been an oft-told tale in this Conference. For nearly half a century, reports, appeals to reason and sentiment, the strenuous efforts of noble men and women in behalf of these unfortunates, were persistently presented to the legislative bodies of several states, and at last were rewarded by the establishment of a small institution in Massachusetts under state supervision. The gradual approach to the adoption of these charities was commensurate with the evolution of a higher and broader civilization. At the time when this agitation began, the free school in America was but rudimentary. Newspapers were exceedingly few and were rather curiosities. All were printed on hand-presses. Books were scarce, and periodicals few; and only the rich could secure for their children more than the outlines of education. More newspapers are printed now in a day in one county of Iowa than were printed in any day of the year 1800 in all of Great Britain. In 1788 there were in the United States only thirty-seven newspapers, issuing a monthly total of 33,000 copies: to-day there are more than 22,000 newspapers, issuing monthly totals of 250,000,000 copies. Recognition of personal rights and the exercise of universal charity are of modern growth, though promulgated nineteen hundred years ago. In the United States to-day there are more than a score of large state institutions for the care and training of the feeble-minded, and nearly a half-dozen colonies for epileptics; and provision for the establishment of several more is already made.

The early history of the pioneer state institutions shows that they were begun as experiments in the face of public doubt as to the value of the result to be obtained or use of wasting time and money on so utterly helpless a class of beings. No institution ever started has been abandoned. These first schools were organized as strictly educational institutions. It was hoped and believed that many of the higher grades could be so developed as to be self-supporting in the community or returned after training to their homes, it not being deemed expedient for the state to assume their permanent care.

Prejudice also existed with managers against congregating any large number in one institution, because it was believed to be harmful and a bar to their successful care. In the course of a few years, it was admitted that but few of the higher grades ever could be safely turned out to make their own way in the world; for no amount of training and discipline can produce in them co-ordinate judgment and will-power. So they are easily influenced for evil, and are prone to become vagrants, drunkards, and thieves, and would by their career entail on society not only great expense, but an increase of pauperism and vice. During the past twenty years scientific study of the defective classes has demonstrated that large numbers of criminals, inebriates, and other persistent offenders against law and morals are really congenital imbeciles.

The results of the experience in the training of the various classes of feeble-minded and an understanding of their needs have modified and broadened the scope and policy of our American institutions, so that all classes and grades of idiocy are cared for, and lifelong detention of all defectives is now urged; and in nearly all of the newer institutions it has become a permanent policy. By classification and division in groups, large numbers can be placed in the care of one institution. The result is more economical, and better results are attained. So the colony plan has at last been accepted and adopted as affording the best means of caring for the immense number of defectives in every state.

It soon became apparent that educational training, to be valuable in developing both mind and body, must be largely manual, tending to fit patients better to help themselves and contribute, under judicious guidance, to their own support. It has been shown "that more than 50 per cent. of the adults of the higher grades who have been under training from childhood are capable of doing, under intelligent supervision, a sufficient amount of work to pay for the actual cost of their support, whether in an institution or at home."

The evolution of the care of the epileptic has much history in common with that of the feeble-minded, as 20 per cent. of their number are feeble-minded. Many were early admitted to these institutions. A large percentage, being insane, were committed to asylums. The majority of so-called normal epileptic persons, because of poverty or ignorance, cannot or do not take the proper care of their health, and live careless or criminal lives. They are at

best, because of their infirmity, not pleasant companions, in constant danger of accident from falling. They are a source of constant anxiety to their friends and relatives. Shut out from school, church, occupation, deprived of the opportunities to cultivate an active moral sense and mental discipline, it is not surprising that some fall into evil ways.

The pitiable condition and unhappy state of these unfortunates, to say nothing of their menace to the social welfare of the community, early directed attention to the wise economy of giving them special care. A small house for epileptics was established in Germany in 1773; but not until the colony at Bielefeld — now caring for over 3,500 — had attained prominence and made enthusiastic workers in the cause, were results forthcoming. Shortly after the founding of the colony at Gallipolis, Ohio, other states established colonies; and it will be safe to predict that in less than a decade there will be few states of our Union without some provision for the care of epileptics. It would be useless repetition to enter into any detailed description of these fine institutions, their work, or aim. Suffice it to say that they have in their management and operation the best talent and most scientific equipment to be obtained for the care and study of those afflicted by the dread malady which has been known through the ages as practically incurable.

The first annual meeting of the national association for the study of epilepsy and the care and treatment of epileptics, which meets in Washington this week, bespeaks the great interest and progress of this humanitarian work.

This national body of charity workers, together with its associate bodies, has done a mighty work in the past score of years in helping to project the establishment of these institutions; but its helping hand must be ever extended, and its heart and soul be strong in purpose, until legislation shall put in force necessary preventive measures that will stop the increase and wipe out the degeneracy of the past, until humanity shall recognize the need of pure living and right purpose.

As we look into the future, encouraged by the successful work of the past, we are filled with the hope that inspired Pasteur, when he said, "I hold the invincible belief that science and peace will be victorious over ignorance and war; that the nations will agree not to destroy, but to build up; and that the future will belong to those who shall have done most for suffering humanity."

CLASSIFICATION OF THE MENTALLY DEFICIENT.

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It is related of Pythagoras by Cicero that once upon a time Pythagoras came to Philius, a city of Peloponnesus; and, while there, he displayed in a conversation which he had with Leon — who then governed that city — a range of knowledge so extensive that the prince, admiring his eloquence and ability, inquired to what art he had principally devoted himself. Pythagoras answered that he professed no art, and was simply a philosopher. Leon, struck by the name, inquired who were the philosophers and in what they differed from other men. Pythagoras replied that human life seemed to resemble the great fair held on occasion of those solemn games which all Greece met to celebrate. Some, skilled in athletic contests, resorted here in quest of glory and the crown of victory; while a greater number flocked to them in order to buy and sell, attracted by the love of gain. There were a few, however,— and they were distinguished by their liberality and intelligence,— who came for no motive of glory or gain, but simply to look about them, and to take note of what was done and in what manner. "So likewise," continued Pythagoras, "we men all make our entrance into this life on our departure from another. Some are here occupied in the pursuit of honors, others in the search of riches. A few, who are indifferent to all else, are they whom I call students of wisdom; for such is the meaning of philosopher."

This anecdote seems peculiarly appropriate to this body of workers, men and women interested in the highest development of the race. With this end in view it is necessary that you inform yourselves as to the absolute and relative utility of all branches of knowledge in order to apply where needed that which will bring the best results to mankind. No doubt discouragements meet you each year and problems face you which seem appalling, but we always find that the sciences which are studied with the keenest interest are those which are in a state of uncertainty and unfolding. Finished certainty and absolute

completion would be the paralysis of any study. What is true of science is true of all human activity. "In life," as the great Pascal observes, "we always believe that we are seeking repose; while, in reality, all that we seek is agitation." Under the same conviction Plato defines man as "the hunter of truth."

"Our hopes, like towering falcons, aim
At objects in an airy height;
But all the pleasure of the game
Is afar off to view the flight."

"The intellect," says Aristotle, "is perfected not by knowledge, but by activity." The arts and sciences are powers, but every power exists only for the sake of action. You are obtaining a knowledge of human powers and human progress by your activity, your earnestness to meet and overcome the evils of life.

The talk assigned to me would perforce compel me to delve deeply into the mind in its normal and abnormal windings. We use the term "mind" when we really mean physical conditions which favor defect or annul certain mental conditions. We cannot rationally define abnormal until we are quite familiar with the normal, and deduce from this standard the conditions which produce the abnormal, subnormal, pathological, or morbid. I cannot better express the meaning of normal than to use Professor Newbold's clear explanation of the word. "Normal" properly means "conformable to type" or "conformable to the standard." "The type is primarily determined by the average of instances, and has no direct reference to the end subserved. We may thus regard a given scrap of stone, a case of typhoid fever, as normal, as types of their kind without any covert teleological reference. But, when in any given class conduciveness to a given end is a relatively constant feature, it necessarily becomes imbedded in the type concept, and the latter becomes teleological. When the end subserved is generally advantageous, a tendency manifests itself to enforce upon individuals conformity to the type; and the latter thus assumes to the consciousness of the community the form of a standard to which one ought to conform. Supernormal and subnormal denote the notion of degree, which is not found in abnormal, pathological, or morbid. A man may be supernormal either by possessing the normal faculties in extraordinary degree or by possessing new faculties not found in the normal

man. Thus this word has chief reference to normal in its first sense of average, 'ordinary.' But, if the new faculties or the unusua development of normal faculties were distinctly injurious to the possessor or the race, we would scarcely term them supernormal. Thus the word, like normal, denotes two meanings, 'above the average and more in conformity with the ideal.' So of subnormal the primary meaning is below the average, but it denotes the idea less in conformity with the ideal. We would scarcely term a child who was notably deficient in temper as 'subnormal' or as 'abnormal,' unless that deficiency amounted to a defect that tended to the child's detriment."

The types of deficiency of which I am to speak stand not merely for shortcomings as compared with the average child, but for defect as compared with the standard; and by standard in this case we mean that particular combination of physical and mental powers which will best conduce to happiness of life under the conditions actually known to us.

It is as difficult to classify the mental variations of the abnormal mind as it is to differentiate the extravagancies of the normal. We can only generalize roughly. To classify, we must arrange according to resemblances and differences (or variations). Every class should be so constituted as to contain objects exactly resembling each other in certain definite qualities, which are stated in the definition of the class. This we cannot really do with the abnormal, for the differences even in the individual cases which we place under the same general head are often marked. In order to render a clear, non-technical idea of the abnormal classes as they have come under our observation, I shall present to you the views of a layman, and not the technical subdivisions of the medical specialist.

In our work we find: first, those that are backward, by reason of some sensory or motor deficiency; second, the mentally weak; third, the mentally deficient; fourth, the morally weak, and, as an aggravated form of the same, the morally deficient.

In the first division, we include all who by reason of some sensory defect are unable to cope with the so-called normal child. In them there is invariably a physical defect apparent to the physician or teacher,—the deaf, blind, partially deaf, or partially blind; also those who are backward on account of some lack of motor control which is recognizable by the eye. For this class of children (and they are

more numerous than ordinarily imagined) we need special schools and special training in connection with the public school system; and where this is given, in many instances, we find the children after the first few years of this individual training (which training should include manual work with the mental) frequently able to take their place with the normal child. Many after a time develop to bright men and women. Quite a large per cent. of our criminal class to-day were among those backward children of a generation or two ago. The educational facilities not being of the kind to develop the best in them, these children became truants, and afterward swelled the number of inmates in houses of correction, criminal courts, etc. We need to-day, in every state and every city, special schools for these backward children, that they may not so drift into crime. Our institutions should not have such children. So far as advisable, we should have day-schools and small homes, but not over 20 children in each home, the children daily attending public schools. This provision would include a number of other children who are now boarded out by children's aid societies. Those children who require the most careful watchfulness are more frequently boarded in families where the mother has not even an intelligent idea of bringing up her own offspring. There is a false sentimentality about this matter. Children who come into the world handicapped with sensory or motor defects or marked by the stigmata of illegitimacy need above all others the environment and intellectual surrounding of cultured women. In any case where a child is so physically incapacitated as to be unfitted to propagate his or her kind, such a child should be unsexed, in order to preserve the purity and healthy condition of humanity. This serves the twofold purpose of preventing the lowering of the race and also preserving such a child untold suffering in the future.

Under the next division, the mentally weak, we have a more complicated state of affairs. Here the defect is not visible, to the unskilled eye. The child seemingly has all the senses developed: he can walk, talk, etc.; yet his faculties are in such an undeveloped state as to retard the growth of the mind. This may be due to the lack of development of the cells of the brain or to the partial destruction, by disease or accident, of the nerve fibres, the projection fibres, or to lack of co-ordination, or to disease or general weakness of the nerve tracts of the cerebro-spinal axis.

These children need the care and training of good schools, and should as early as possible be separated from normal children; for the normal children only retard their advancement. The skilled neurologist, who has made special study of such cases, should be consulted rather than the family physician. The trained eye of the specialist will more readily note the defect and more rationally direct the remedy; for this is his work, and a work which requires the most painstaking study.

The children need physical care, medical gymnastics. In teaching them, one should begin with whatever engages their interests. They need also the trained care of those accustomed to note physical weakness, in order to change occupations at times. Such children will frequently develop to quite an advanced stage. In fact, I have yet to see a mentally weak child who has entirely ceased to develop. We have with us a girl who is almost forty, and to-day she readily takes up new work and will persevere until she has accomplished what she has started out to do. We have been able in our individual work to refute the theory that after a certain time the mind of the weak ceases to grow. So far, in our seventeen years of experiences we have yet to find any child remaining at a given point or going backward. Of course, they have individual care, which in large institutions it is impossible to give.

Passing from the mentally weak, we come to the mentally deficient. With these we find the way dark and the work discouraging at first; but frequently that which seems a mere bundle of flesh and bones will, with loving care and beautiful environment, awaken to a degree of intelligence which is astonishing.

Dr. Ireland has suggested a classification of the mentally deficient which seems to me one of the best I have seen. His division is as follows: the genetous, microcephalic, hydrocephalic, eclampic, epileptic, paralytic, traumatic, inflammatory, sclerotic, syphilitic, cretinism. I will briefly refer to some of the characteristics as stated by Dr. Ireland.

In genetous deficiency the diseased condition occurs before birth, and the presumption of heredity is stronger than in other forms. Frequently the youngest child of a large family is found deficient from such causes. The children of this type are seldom well built, but are short of stature, and long retain an infantile expression. Under this type we have what is called the Mongolian form of deficiency. In all these cases the patients are apt to show tuberculous tendencies.

The microcephalic patient presents a deficiency due to lack of development of the hemispheres of the brain. Some believe that microcephaly is an instance of atavism, the appearance of a type of brain inherited from some very remote ancestral type. Much discussion has resulted from the examination of the microcephalic brain. It has been contended that, although the brain is diminished, it shows so distinctly traits known only to the human brain that in no case could it be taken for that of a lower animal. The brain of the microcephalic patient may be diminished in size and deformed, but the characteristics belonging to mankind are so marked that the microcephalic, no matter how low he may be, is not a beast, but a diminished man. Microcephaly precedes birth. Vogt, a disciple of Darwin, thought the characteristics of the microcephalic patient resembled those of the anthropoid ape. But the intelligence of the monkey is very different from that of such a patient. The mental powers of the monkey are in perfect accord with his organism. His agility in climbing and swinging himself from branch to branch is perfectly marvellous. The microcephalic patients have no power of feeding and protecting themselves and no fondness for climbing. They possess the effaced lineaments of human beings which only a wandering fancy would mistake for those of an ape.

Hydrocephalus is the most fatal of the nervous diseases of children. Many children die of this so called "water on the brain," some recover without having their minds impaired, a few neither recover nor die: these are our lowest grades of deficiency. Sometimes it comes before birth and often after birth. Epilepsy frequently accompanies hydrocephalus. The children of this type are apt to be gentle and easily managed.

We have convulsions which are not strictly epileptic: they are termed eclampsic. It takes the trained and skilled diagnosis of the neurologist to distinguish between this disease and epilepsy.

The surroundings of the epileptic, his diet and occupations, have much to do with his mental condition. We have as yet very little knowledge of the disease. It is not well to train the epileptic with the children who are not subject to the disease, and yet he should not be placed where he is shut up entirely with his own kind. The colonies for epileptics, I think, are the worst things we can institute for the obliterating of the disease. If mind affects mind, certainly to colonize many epileptics will of necessity retard rather than promote the possi-

bility of help. In other words, it will increase the disease. When we have small state schools and sort out our children, placing one epileptic with ten who are not, we shall do more to help epileptics than colonization will ever do.

One other division is cretinism. This occurs frequently; and many who know nothing of this form of deficiency are interested because of familiarity with the title. It is endemic, and has been common to the Alps since ancient times: it is most common in shut-up valleys, and has a close connection with goitre. Nowhere does cretinism exist where goitre is not found, but goitre may occur without cretinism. There are close valleys where more than half of the children are cretins. Parents living in these valleys will frequently send their children to elevations to be nursed, and this tends to a change for the better. A great improvement has been made in many cases of sporadic cretinism by the medical use of preparations made from the thyroid gland of animals. This treatment must be watched, and the effects closely noted by the physician.

This concludes the present-day classification of the mentally deficient; and I want you to especially note that those odious terms, "imbecile" and "idiot" have not been used at all, though I have touched all forms of mental deficiency. We have no use for those names of implied contempt; and, if we wish to elevate these weaklings, we must be careful of terms by which we express their deficiency. There is so much in a name and the way the name is used. They may be called mentally deficient, but many types of deficiency occur.

I cannot leave the mentally deficient without first speaking to you of the beautiful characteristics of these children; for they are children, although sometimes old in years. After seventeen years of close contact and hand-to-hand work with them from the lowest grade to the highest, I have as yet to find a viciously inclined child or one who could not be helped upward, provided the right environment was brought to bear and the key-note to the psychic life was found. We read in the reports of physicians and in books of their "viciousness," of their "cruel traits." This is not true, and gives to the public a false idea of their true characteristics. I will admit that under a wrong influence and with those who have not the tenderness to bring forth the good traits, perhaps dormant, the mentally deficient will turn on his attendant and fight for his rights; but this will not be done until after he has been imposed upon for some time. They appeal to the most

tender side of our natures, knowing, as I am sure, many of them do, far more than they can express, and yet unable to make their wants known. Unable to tell if they have not been kindly treated and imposed upon or neglected, can you blame them if at times they rebel if they find no sympathy from those who care for them? Their training must be judicious, and great but kindly firmness brought to bear. I am not speaking from a sentimental standpoint, but from a purely practical and humanitarian point of view.

To speak of putting these children out of the world is to my mind as unjust and wicked as to wish your next-door neighbor dead if he does not come up to your idea of physical greatness. We all have our physical weaknesses, and we never know when these weaknesses will incapacitate us from being useful members of society. One thing is necessary, and that is how to prevent these children from coming into the world. This can be done by bringing before the public the right way of living and by instilling in them a knowledge of the physiology and psychology of child-bearing. Further than this, we should enforce the unsexing of all who are unfitted to propagate their kind; but, when they once are here, the obligation to care for them rests upon us with far greater weight than the obligation to care for the normal child.

We will glance at the morally weak and the morally deficient. The general public must grasp the truth that moral sense, like every other mental capacity, requires a fitting basis of brain structure, and that, if this has never existed or has been destroyed by disease, a moral sense is impossible. You will all admit that there are those who have no ear for music, none of the special structure of ear and brain through which an appreciation of music is possible, and that those persons can never develop such a capacity, every rudiment of it being absent. Again, we have those who have this structure; but, it is, like the mind of the mentally weak, an impaired structure, just as there are those who have a certain ear for tone without having it sufficiently developed to produce music excepting by the most careful and painstaking study. But with this study such people may become fairly good musicians. This is the difference between the morally weak and the morally deficient,— one can be helped and for the other we do not feel as yet any plan has developed which will make any permanent impression. Many mistakes are make by confusing the morally weak with the morally deficient; and by placing

the weak with those who have a tendency to increase this weakness no improvement is made, and the weak drift into hopeless deficiency. Many such with the proper training from early childhood might be so trained as to make a change in the brain structure, and the weak should grow into strong men and women. In the first place, parents and physicians should come to a realization that this condition is a disease, and as early as possible the matter should be brought plainly to the parents' notice. Then the training and environment should tend to strengthen the weak points and obliterate the evil. I contend this can be done by a true psychological training. This training should commence in the earliest years of the child. Teachers should be trained for this work, and schools established with this end in view. These children should be trained with the view of receiving a technical education. The physical development should be well looked to. The manual and, finally, the scientific training should follow. Where the brain power is brought to bear upon the recognition of differences and the work in the laboratory is such as to bring into play the power of concentration, the brain structure is bound gradually to change. The trouble has been that we give these children edge tools and only just sufficient education to sharpen their already bright and cunning wits. Then we should not place them altogether, but one morally weak child should be placed with ten strong, and so with the morally deficient. The morally weak will not retard the strong, but the strong will uphold the weak. I believe, if this course of treatment could be given and tried systematically for the next fifteen years, in twenty years the decrease in crime would be incalculably great. It would be an outlay at first, but not nearly so much as is used to defray the expenses of crimes which are now committed by these morally weak and morally deficient. In Plato's Republic we have the following quotation which is applicable to this gathering: "I have only told you half, citizens, we shall say to them in our tale, you are brothers, yet God has framed you differently. Some of you have the power to command and in the composition of those he has mingled gold, wherefore they have the greatest honor; others he has made of silver, to be auxiliaries; others, again, to be husbandmen and craftsmen he has composed of brass and iron; and the species will generally be preserved to the children. But, as all are of the same original stock, a golden parent will sometimes have a silver son, or a silver parent a golden son. And God

proclaims as the first principle to the rulers and, above all else, that there is nothing which they are to be such guardians of as the purity of the race."

While the bulk of this paper comes from personal experience and observation, I am also indebted to the writings of Doctors Ireland, Baldwin, Newbold, and McKim, and others for information and help.

RECENT ATTEMPTS AT RESTRICTIVE MARRIAGE LEGISLATION.

BY A. C. ROGERS, M.D.,

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOL FOR FEEBLE-MINDED, FARIBAULT, MINN.

The idea is growing that there are too many ill-advised marriages for the good of society. Two facts are especially responsible for the increasing interest in this subject; namely, the large number of divorces and desertions and the large number of defectives and delinquents requiring state support or assistance.

At the Toronto meeting of this Conference, in 1897, a paper was presented by Mrs. Wells, of Boston, urging a national marriage law to prohibit the marriage of the feeble-minded and insane. Since that time there have been numerous discussions of the subject of restricted eligibility to marriage by various public or semi-public bodies of more or less influence in the country. During the late winter several state legislatures have had under discussion bills for regulating marriages. Those exciting the most comment were before the legislatures of Colorado, Indiana, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin.

In Pennsylvania the Roth Bill, requiring bachelors over forty to pay $100 for a marriage license, the proceeds to be used for the support of old maids' homes, was not treated very seriously. The bills before the other legislatures were intended to prevent the marriage of the grossly unfit, and, while looked upon by many as jokes at first, were all finally given serious consideration.

The Lindley Bill in Indiana provided for the appointment of a

commission to consider the conditions of eligibility to legal marriage, and report the same with recommendations as to legislation to carry them into effect. The bill failed to receive a constitutional majority.

The Colorado and Wisconsin bills each provided for the appointment, by the judge of probate or county judge, of a medical commission in each county to pass upon applicants for marriage license.

It was intended by the authors of these bills to prevent marriage if one of the applicants had dipsomania, true insanity, syphilis, tuberculosis, epilepsy, feeble-mindedness, or any form of venereal disease. In each case there was to be a lady physician on the board, when possible.

In Minnesota the Chilton Bill was made to apply only to cases of insanity, feeble-mindedness, and epilepsy, when under forty-five years of age. A certificate of a reputable physician to the effect that neither of these impediments existed was sufficient to permit the issuance of license. As the bill passed, this requirement of a physician's certificate was eliminated, the clerk of the court being left with responsibility of deciding as to the eligibility of the applicant.

There has been a general discussion of the merits and demerits of these various bills by the public press. The writer has observed something over one hundred newspaper and magazine notices referring to them. A large number of these were merely news items, giving more or less complete quotations from the provisions of the bill under consideration. About 20 per cent. were humorous or flippant references only, while the rest were earnest utterances for or against this class of legislation, the proportion being about five to seven in favor of it.

The arguments favorable to such legislation have generally been broad statements that restrictive legislation would assist in improving the race.

Among the arguments used against it were the following: —

First, a law in one state would be evaded by sending applicants to an adjoining one for the consummation of the marriage rite. Second, there is lack of public sentiment to sustain it. Third, an outrage upon the liberty of the church. Fourth, interference with personal liberty. Fifth, would tend to increase immorality. Sixth, difficulty of determining the degree of disease or defect that should be prohibited.

The consideration of the subject presents at once these two questions: —

First, Should there be restriction placed upon eligibility to marriage? and, second, If such restriction is desirable, is legislation to be considered as a means of bringing it about?

The evasion of the law by going to another state would of course be remedied only by united action on the part of the different states or by federal law applying to all states alike.

As to the lack of a strong public sentiment, this is true at the present time, though that sentiment is growing.

Some of the arguments against the general principle of restriction do not seem to be of a serious nature. It is difficult to see how restriction can be considered an outrage to the Church; for even in mediæval times, when the Church first declared marriage a sacrament and claimed exclusive jurisdiction over matrimonial cases, it recognized as *impedimenta* insanity and lack of physical fitness, and introduced *impedimenta* based upon consanguinity in addition to those recognized by Roman and Teutonic law, so that "before 1215 the impediments of consanguinity and affinity extended to the seventh degree (*e.g.*, to sixth cousin)."* While this excessive restriction has been reduced, the principle is still recognized by the Roman Church, which represents the most extreme conservatism at the present day. It is only fair to assume that the Church would not introduce impediments to marriage except for the good of the race; and therefore, if it should be shown by later indisputable scientific evidence that other impediments should be introduced for the same purpose, there would certainly be no religious body of standing that would hesitate to recognize them if the state now having control of matrimonial affairs should upon good and sufficient grounds take the lead in recognizing them.

As to personal liberty, the state has always reserved the right to interfere with it, if such liberty is a menace to the public good. The real question is not whether the state has a right to interfere with personal liberty, but to determine certainly to what extent personal liberty is actually detrimental to society. This is, of course, the real problem; and the attempt to legislate upon the matter is bringing into clear relief the amount of definite knowledge available upon which to base restrictive action. More harm will be done by trying to be radical than by remaining slow and conservative.

There is no doubt that a large amount of defective humanity owes

*Munroe Smith's Universal Encyclopædia, vol. vii. p. 527.

its origin to vitiated ancestry, the results of whose affinity could have been easily foretold. On the other hand, it must be clearly understood that there are plenty of degenerates and defectives whose conditions can be traced to no known causes, or such, at least, as could have been correctly interpreted and the results prevented. A markedly feeble-minded person cannot be the parent of a normally bright child unless the other parent is mentally bright and strong. These opposite conditions are not apt to unite, but those on the same plane may; and here is where legal interference can and should be provided for.

A person suffering from chronic genuine epilepsy could not procreate perfectly healthy children, though cases are well known where one parent of a large family, apparently healthy and free from any suspicion of any form of neurosis or degeneration, has occasional epileptic attacks.

To determine the safety standard in such a case requires a careful discrimination, based upon a thorough knowledge of heredity as well as a knowledge of the family history of the case. The same is true of the difficulty of differentiating between the degrees of insanity and its influence on the children of the patients.

The argument holds good in a measure in reference to the dipsomaniac and other individuals of the other classes enumerated, except that these conditions presuppose a greater degree of personal responsibility on the part of the individual for their existence, and they are sure to bring more or less actual injury or suffering to the consort, if not to their progeny: hence there is an element of criminal liability which justifies interference.

As to increasing immorality, the circumstances resolve themselves, even at the worst, into a question of choice between legalized relations that surely entail suffering and misery upon succeeding generations and immoral relations with very slight probability of offspring. The choice is easily made; and, the more clearly the *impedimenta* are determined, the less the liability of involving innocent persons.

In conclusion, then, I would emphasize the fact that legislation is applicable so far as it can be based upon exact knowledge, and no farther. The laws of heredity and generation are as yet but little understood; and, while the increments of knowledge slowly increase, there can be no doubt that all that tends to personal health and righteousness according to the well-established standards of the ages will tend to the improvement of the race.

IX.

Destitute and Neglected Children.

SAVING THE CHILDREN.

BY AMOS W. BUTLER,

SECRETARY INDIANA BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

In consultation with the members of this committee, as to the subject of our report, several were desirous of presenting the progress of the work for dependent and neglected children during the past century, and a statement of its condition in America at the beginning of this year. In the brief time at my disposal, it will be possible to give but an outline of what has been done, and of the present status of the work. The valuable papers by Mr. Homer Folks in the *Charities Review* give quite well the history of efforts for these unfortunate ones in America. I wish to express my appreciation of them, and my obligation for much information found therein for this paper.

At the opening of this century the boundary between the civilization of the white man and native barbarism in this country was east of the Alleghanies. It extended through New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. It has followed the course of the sun on its journey to the West, and has passed away. The settlements of white men fringed the shores of all the seas, and extended inland beside the navigable waters. In 1801, with a single exception, the only public institutions in which children were maintained were almshouses, known also in different states as poor asylums, and infirmaries. In some states the poor were cared for by families under contract. They were often let to the lowest bidder. Both adults and young were frequently bound out. The needy were aided in some places by outdoor relief. Little or no attention was paid to neglected children. The young offender and the hardened criminal went

to the same prison, where they associated together. Not a single juvenile reformatory existed in this land; nor was one thought of for years afterward. The problems of public dependence were not thrust upon the people. Save in the larger cities, instances of want were few. Elsewhere, generally, the needy were helped by their neighbors.

The almshouse was the primary charitable institution. Shortly after the middle of the eighteenth century the larger cities began to feel the need of some sort of provision for their poor. The sick, the crippled, infirm, those mentally defective, and orphan children appealed to them for care. The almshouse was the sole institution for all needing help. Into it were gathered all who needed care; and from it have gone forth, as successive swarms from a hive, the varied groups of dependants into institutions designed for each particular class. The insane, the sick and crippled, orphans, the deaf, the blind, the epileptic, one group after another has been taken away as the sentiment in state after state reached a higher plane.

The year 1801 opened with our Union, composed of sixteen united states. Therein, so far as the records show, there existed but one public orphans' home, the Orphans' House at Charleston, S.C., opened in 1794, but organized several years before that. This has continued until now, a creditable and helpful institution. There were private institutions for the care of orphans before this. Perhaps the first in this country was that connected with the Ursuline Convent at New Orleans. This convent cared for orphans from its beginning, in 1727. Following this was one in Savannah, Ga., established in 1738 by George Whitefield. Toward the close of the century there were organizations effected for the care of children in New York in 1797, Philadelphia in 1798, Baltimore in 1799, and Boston in 1800. When the new century opened, there were six societies for the care of orphans.

Possibly the earliest method practised for caring for dependent children was that of "binding out" under what was termed, in some states, the master and apprentice law. This has been sometimes called indenture. How far this custom goes back into the early history of our country, I have been unable to learn. It is said to have been in use in Massachusetts in 1703, in New York in 1754, in Pennsylvania in 1771, in Maryland in 1797. It was the sole general agent in making provision for children at the beginning of

the last century, and continued a notable factor until well toward its close. In fact, in some states it is still upon the statute books, and is occasionally invoked to remove a child from bad surroundings. Sept. 17, 1807, the legislature of Indiana Territory passed an indenture act providing that the overseers of the poor, by the consent of the justice of the peace, might bind out orphans and children whose parents were unable to maintain them. A similar law was later enacted by that state. After the middle of the century the practice of binding out fell more and more into disuse.

The custom of keeping children in almshouses was one that was hard to get away from. Doubtless many ideas looking to such a course were advanced long before any active steps were taken or any results obtained. Even in those states whose boast it is that they are progressive, it was hard to shake off the old custom. Ohio provided for the removal of children from infirmaries, by authorizing the establishment of county children's homes, in 1866. In 1883 it prohibited the retention of children over three years of age in county infirmaries. In 1898 this was reduced to one year. In 1881 Indiana made possible the removal of children from the poor asylums by providing for children's homes similar to those in Ohio.

In certain counties the law was put into effect. It was not until 1897, however, that the legislature prohibited keeping children between the ages of three and seventeen years in poor asylums. This law has generally been observed. Michigan took similar action in 1871. Massachusetts provided for the separation of children from adult paupers in 1872, although there was partial separation in Boston in 1834. Other states promptly followed by making provision: New York, 1875; Wisconsin, in 1878; Pennsylvania and Connecticut, in 1883; Rhode Island, 1885; Maryland, 1890; New Hampshire, 1895; New Jersey, 1899.

In the effort to solve the problem of the best method of caring for the children outside of almshouses, several different plans have been tried. Each state tried to utilize a system of child-caring in use within its limits. Ohio put the children in county orphans' homes; New York contracted with private charities to keep them in their institutions for orphans; Massachusetts provided for boarding them in private families; Michigan had them committed to the State Public School. Other states have followed along these different lines; and possibly some which have not prohibited children in their almshouses,

if the change should come, would utilize private child-saving agencies to put the children into families. We are all familiar with the question of institutional care against family homes for dependent children. Some of these agencies have been first on one side of this subject and then on the other. The discussion of these two propositions has lingered long and sounded loud as time has gone on, but each has borne fruit. The majority of students have come to believe in both: the institution temporarily, to prepare a child; and a home in a good family for its care. So far as I have heard from the members of this committee, they all believe thoroughly in that practice. We have come to recognize that the best place for a dependent child is in a good family home. There it may grow up in the natural way, learning the duties and responsibilities of life and breathing the air of independence.

As has been stated, the first movement for caring for dependent children came through private organization. Other institutions for orphans began to be added to the six previously existing. The first of these, the New York Orphans' Home, was founded in 1806. The next year an orphan school in Baltimore undertook the care of children. This later became known as the Baltimore Female Orphan Asylum, and now as the Baltimore Orphan Asylum. The Boston Asylum for Indigent Boys was established in 1813, and the Orphan Society of Philadelphia in 1814. The Washington City Orphan Asylum was founded in 1815. The first organization of this kind in this century in the Mississippi Valley was the Protestant Orphan Asylum at Natchez, Miss., founded in 1816. The next year the Poydras Female Orphan Asylum was established in New Orleans, St. Mary's Female Orphan Asylum, Baltimore, and the Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum, New York. The first colored orphan asylum was established by the Friends in Philadelphia in 1822. The Orphan Asylum at Cincinnati, the first institution of this kind west of the Alleghany Mountains, was founded in 1833. Following these, the number grew rapidly as institutions were organized in one part of the country after another. Generally, these have been supported by private contribution; but in some states they have been the regular recipients of state aid. According to Mr. Folks, there were in the United States 21 private orphan asylums up to 1831, 26 more by 1841, and a total of 77 in 1851.

About this time a movement to place dependent children in

family homes made itself felt. The outgrowth of this was the Children's Aid Society of New York, the first association of its kind. It did much for the poor children of New York in that city, and sent large numbers of them into the homes of the people of the Western states. Similar societies were organized in Baltimore in 1860, in Boston in 1865, in Brooklyn in 1866. Others of the same general character followed. State children's home societies came later, and they adopted some of the same methods. They have become active agents in the work in several of our states.

The Massachusetts Board of State Charities was organized in 1863. The next year the almshouse at Monson was made the State Primary School. The juvenile dependants were taken from the state almshouses thereto. In 1872 most of the adult paupers were removed from that institution. By 1875 they were generally separated from the dependent children in the state almshouses. These later were the state wards, the children without a settlement. The other dependent children in the state were cared for by their respective counties. Before this time a system of visitation and supervision of dependent children in family homes had been inaugurated. A few children from the school at Monson were placed in families to board in 1882. Year after year the number boarded out grew, and the population of the school decreased. Finally, the number became so small that the school was abandoned in 1895. Pennsylvania, through the help of the Children's Aid Society, entered upon the plan of boarding out the dependent children after the enactment of the law of 1883.

Michigan, as the result of much consideration, decided in 1871 to establish a state public school. This was located at Coldwater, and opened in 1874. It receives all normal children under twelve years of age in the state who are public wards. They are committed by the court, and promptly placed in families by indenture. Each home is inspected before the child is placed therein, and it is regularly visited thereafter. Minnesota, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin established similar schools in 1885. Kansas, Colorado, Nevada, Texas, and Nebraska also have since organized such schools. Indiana undertook to establish a state school in 1895, but the legislature was not in favor of the plan. The result, however, was the adoption in 1897 of the placing-out system, under the supervision and control of the Board of State Charities. Use is made of

the local orphans' homes for the reception of children awaiting transfer to private families. The work in many respects is similar to that in Michigan, except the children are not committed, there are no county agents, and there are several receiving homes instead of one.

While many organizations for caring for destitute children grew up, it was more recently that such came into being for the rescue of the neglected little ones. The system of binding out included neglected children, those who were found begging or were in vicious homes. The principle that the state is under obligation to protect a child from wrong or from immoral or degrading surroundings came to be a settled belief in some states.

Organizations for the prevention of cruelty to children followed such sentiment, and resulted in more advanced laws. The New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children was organized in 1875. It was the pioneer. Each year thereafter other societies were formed for the same purpose. The purpose of these was the rescue of neglected children.

Recognizing the old common law principle that the court is the guardian of all minor children, the state of Indiana, in 1889, provided by law for the appointment of boards of children's guardians, in the larger townships, by the circuit judge. In 1891 this was made applicable to all counties having a population of more than 50,000. The last legislature re-enacted a board of guardians law, and made it applicable to all counties of the state. The board of children's guardians is the agent of the court for the rescue of neglected children. The District of Columbia has such a board, whose authority is coextensive with its boundaries. Two years ago New Jersey adopted a law providing for such a board of guardians for the entire state. It has supervision of all the neglected children within the commonwealth.

The older idea of punitive punishment, coming down from the centuries of the past, is mighty in influence even yet. Count the number of our states in which this sentiment underlies the existing laws. In all our prisons, when the century was young, there were confined not only men and women, but also boys and girls. To a greater or less extent these mingled indiscriminately together. These disgraceful conditions of a century ago have not by any means wholly passed. In how many of our states are they still to be seen! At

the beginning of the nineteenth century there was no juvenile reformatory in the United States. The first institution of this kind was the New York House of Refuge, founded in 1825. The next year after its organization the Boston House of Reformation was established. Then came the Philadelphia House of Refuge. The Lyman School for Boys, at Westboro, Mass., was started in 1847; the State Industrial School at Rochester, N.Y., in 1849. The initial institution of this kind west of the Atlantic coast was the House of Refuge, in Cincinnati, founded in 1850. The first reform school for girls was the Industrial School for Girls at Dorchester, Mass., established in 1855. One after another the states have taken up this work. Juvenile reformatories have been established by many. Elsewhere there is great need for such action.

The sentiment as we come into this year is strong for an advance step in a number of states. In Alabama it is reported the last legislature made an appropriation for a reformatory for children. In Arkansas the Senate passed a bill providing for such an institution, but it failed of final passage.

Naturally the first employment for inmates was contract work. The thought was that they should do something. In time we have got away from that. The present thought is they should be something. It is not work, but training, that is desired. In many states reform schools receive homeless children, and in some they are the only public institutions receiving these state wards. This should not be, nor should there be feeling against reform schools and their inmates. Their charges are but children, neglected, untrained, wayward boys and girls. They need discipline, education, training, and correct adjustment to the proper conditions of life. The reform schools are prominent factors in the work of child-saving. They are the lower dam which catches those not stopped by other effects higher up the stream.

When we look backward, the record tells us that practically all that has been done, not only for children, but for all the great progress in charities, is the work of this century. Looking at it year by year, the progress of child-saving work appears very slow. Even with the results of existing methods apparent, the work spreads slowly into new territory. But, measuring by decades, we come to wonder at what has been accomplished. The greatest steps have been taken in the past twenty or twenty-five years. This statement applies to all

phases of charitable and correctional work. Knowing the practical, pushing character of our people, we may wonder what will be their future.

Summing up the different phases of caring for the neglected and dependent children who are public wards, it will be observed that there are distinctively five : —

1. They are supported in private institutions, at public expense. Illustrated in the states of New York and California.

2. In one state institution, known under various names in different states. To this they are regularly committed by the court. Illustrated by Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Colorado.

3. Where local, frequently county and inter-county homes are supported at public expense for the care of such children. This prevails in Ohio, Connecticut, and, to some extent, in Indiana.

4. The children are boarded out in families at a stipulated price, which is paid by the state, as in Massachusetts, and to some extent in Pennsylvania.

5. Dependent and neglected children are placed in some reform schools. These are generally owned by the state, but sometimes are the property of a private corporation which receives pay from the state for the custody of the inmates committed to it.

The committee has endeavored to ascertain in certain important particulars the exact status of the child-saving work, especially so far as it is supported at public expense in the different states and territories of our country. Information has also been received from the provinces of Manitoba and Ontario, Canada. I shall not undertake to read in detail the table which has been prepared as the result of much correspondence, extending over a considerable period of time. I shall ask, on behalf of the committee, that this table be printed in the Proceedings of the Conference. Permit me, however, to beg your indulgence to present to you a summary of the more important facts obtained from it.

There are 44 states and territories, including the District of Columbia, which have almshouses. (Where this term is used, it is understood to include infirmaries and poor asylums, as such institutions are called in certain States.) This number does not include Arizona, Florida, and Louisiana, which are reported as having 1 almshouse each. Seven states and territories have no almshouses, or but 1 each, as last noted. Ontario has such institutions ; and Mani-

toba has 1, known as the Home for Incurables. Referring to the 44 states and territories above mentioned, it is observed that 31 have no law restricting, and 42 have no law prohibiting, the retention of children in almshouses. Only 17 have a law restricting, and 6 a law prohibiting, the retention of children in almshouses. In Canada, Manitoba has no law on this subject, while Ontario has. Notwithstanding the laws in existence, in 27 of the states and territories referred to children are maintained in almshouses. In 10 of these, however, it is said they are retained temporarily. 12 report that children are not maintained in these institutions. In Canada a few are retained in the Home for Incurables in Manitoba, but in Ontario none are said to be in the almshouses. In 18 states the children are reported to be supported in public institutions. 10 of these are state public schools or other public institutions under similar form. In 10 states the children are supported in private institutions, mostly at public expense. 14 states, and the province of Ontario in Canada, report efficient official provision for finding homes for dependent children. 10 states and territories report private provisions for finding such homes at public expense. 12 states are reported to have state control or supervision of the home-finding work. This varies in efficiency and thoroughness. 38 states and territories report that there is no state control or supervision of the work of placing children in family homes.

Looking at human progress as we survey it from our present position, it may be said that the past century has been one of contest with the forces of nature. This century will be one of combat with the evils of society. The past century was a struggle for existence by the men and women of our race. This will be marked by efforts of individuals and by society for the best interests of the children. The present century will be the children's century. In it the most important work will be the elevation of all childhood. The children of the family, the children of the community, the children of the people, will have more thought and attention. We will prepare for the children of the future by training their parents and their grandparents. We are coming to know the diseases, the blighting and dwarfing influences and results of society. We shall come to know the remedies, and, above all, appreciate the things that are preventive. We shall more and more appreciate home training, religious training, mental training, manual training, and moral training. We

shall come to value at a higher rate the education of the mind, the morals, and the muscles. The free schools, manual training schools, kindergartens, compulsory education laws, curfew ordinances, and child-saving laws will continue to be more and more highly regarded as means preventive of pauperism and crime. Standing here, we survey what has been accomplished. The present conditions and spirit are prophecies of the future. Let us spread the news and speed the gospel of saving the children. It is the message which the Master gave to men.

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	Name of State.	Poor asylums, infirmaries, or almshouses.	Minors maintained therein.	Law restricting same.	Law prohibiting same.	Are dependent children maintained in special public institutions?	Supported by county, state, or both?	Provision made by state for finding family homes.	State control or supervision.
1	Alabama	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.[1]	No.	No.[2]	—	None.	None.
2	Alaska	No.	—[3]						
3	Arizona	Yes.[4]	No.	No.	No.	No.	—	None.	None.
4	Arkansas	Yes.[5]	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[6]	—	None.[7]	None.
5	California	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[8]	—	None.[9]	None.
6	Colorado	Yes.	Temporarily.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.[10]	State.	Yes.	Yes.
7	Connecticut	Yes.[11]	No.[12]	Yes.	No.	Yes.[13]	State.[14]	—	—[15]
8	Delaware	Yes.	Temporarily.	No.	No.	No.[16]	—	—[17]	None.
9	District of Columbia	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	No.[18]	—	—[19]	—
10	Florida	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[20]	—	None.	None.
11	Georgia	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	No.[21]	No.	None.	None.
12	Idaho	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	—	None.	None.
13	Illinois	Yes.	Temporarily.	No.	No.	No.[22]	—	None.[23]	None.[24]
14	Indiana	Yes.	Temporarily.	Yes.[25]	No.	Yes.[26]	County.	Yes.[27]	Yes.
15	Indian Territory	No.	—	—	—	Yes.[28]	Nation to which they belong.	None.	None.
16	Iowa	Yes.	Temporarily.[29]	No.	No.	Yes.[30]	Both.[31]	Yes.[32]	None.
17	Kansas	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	Yes.[33]	State.	Yes.[34]	Yes.
18	Kentucky	Yes.[35]	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	—	—[36]	None.
19	Louisiana	Yes.[37]	No.	No.	No.	No.	—	None.	None.
20	Maine	Yes.[38]	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[39]	—[40]	Yes.[41]	None.
21	Manitoba	Yes.[42]	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	—[43]	—[44]	
22	Maryland	Yes.	Temporarily.[45]	—[46]	No.	No.[47]	—[48]	None.	None.
23	Massachusetts	Yes.	Temporarily.	Yes.	No.	No.[49]	—	Yes.[50]	Yes.
24	Michigan	Yes.	No.[51]	Yes.	No.	Yes.[52]	State.	—[53]	Yes.
25	Minnesota	Yes.	Temporarily.	No.[54]	No.	Yes.[55]	State.	—[56]	Yes.[57]
26	Mississippi	Yes.[58]	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[59]	—	None.	No.

27	Missouri	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.[60]	—	None.[61]	None.
28	Montana	Yes.	No.	No.	—	Yes.[62]	—	—[63]	None.
29	Nebraska	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	Yes.	Both.	Yes.[64]	No.
30	Nevada	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	Yes.	State.	None.	Yes.
31	New Hampshire	Yes.	Temporarily.	Yes.	No.	Yes.	—[65]	None.[66]	None.[67]
32	New Jersey	Yes.	Yes.[68]	Yes.[69]	No.	No.	—	Yes.[70]	Yes.[71]
33	New Mexico	No.	—	—	—	No.[72]	Partly territorial funds.	None.	None.
34	New York	Yes.[73]	Yes.[74]	Yes.	No.	No.[75]	Both.[76]	Yes.[77]	Yes.
35	North Carolina	Yes.[78]	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[79]	—[80]	None.	No.
36	North Dakota	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[81]	—	None.[82]	None.
37	Ohio	Yes.	Yes.[83]	Yes.	No.	Yes.[84]	County.	County Agents.	No.
38	Oklahoma	No.	—	—	—	No.	—	None.[85]	None.
39	Ontario	Yes.	No.[86]	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.[87]	System of Children's Aid Soc's.	Yes.
40	Oregon	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Yes.	No.[88]	—[89]	—[90]	None.
41	Pennsylvania	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.[91]	County.	Children's Aid Society.	Yes.
42	Rhode Island	Yes.[92]	No.	Yes.[93]	Yes.	Yes.[94]	State.	Secretary State Bd. of Control.	None.
43	South Carolina	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[95]	—	None.	None.
44	South Dakota	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	None.[96]	None.
45	Tennessee	Yes.	Yes.[97]	No.	No.	Yes.[98]	Both.	None.[99]	None.[100]
46	Texas	Yes.	Temporarily.	Yes.	No.	Yes.[101]	Both.[102]	None.[103]	None.
47	Utah	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	—	None.[104]	None.
48	Vermont	Yes.[105]	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[106]	No.	None.[107]	None.
49	Virginia	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[108]	—	None.	None.
50	Washington	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[109]	—	None.[110]	None.
51	West Virginia	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.[111]	—	None.	None.
52	Wisconsin	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.[112]	State.	Agent State Public School.	Yes.
53	Wyoming	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	—	None.	None.

REFERENCES.

Alabama.— [1] Healthy children over fourteen years of age are not maintained. [2] Episcopalians, Methodists, and Presbyterians have orphans' homes.

Alaska.— [3] Dependent children cared for by the different church missions which have orphans' homes, supported by missionary societies.

Arizona.— [4] Maricopa is the only county having a poor-farm.

Arkansas.— [5] Most counties have poor asylums. [6] Maintained in state institutions for blind, deaf and dumb, and insane, when so afflicted. [7] Homes are found by religious societies all over the state.

California.— [8] The appropriation by the state of money for support of dependent children makes it unnecessary for children to be maintained in almshouses. [9] The American Home Finding Society of Pacific Coast, Oakland; Children's Home Finding Society, San Francisco, and Children's Home Society, Los Angeles, place children in homes, one of these having found homes for 600 children in the past five years.

Colorado.— [10] According to law, all dependent and neglected children must be committed to the State Home for Dependent Children, its work being to secure good family homes as soon as possible, the superintendent or state agent first visiting homes of applicants.

Connecticut.— [11] These are town almshouses, and 88 of the 168 towns in the state have them. [12] Children between four and sixteen years of age are not maintained therein. [13] Dependent children are maintained in county temporary homes, there being one in each of the eight counties in the state. [14] The law provides for town committees to assist the county home in finding family homes. It also authorizes the State Board of Charities to assist in this work. [15] State Board of Charities has supervision of the work, and is represented by one member (or the secretary) in the board of management in each county home.

Delaware.— [16] The state supports children in out-of-town institutions, and the Levy Court appropriates funds toward private institutions. [17] Children's Home Society places children in private families.

District of Columbia.— [18] Maintained in private institutions at public expense. [19] Board of Children's Guardians.

Florida.— [20] Only one institution for dependent children. Institution for deaf, dumb, and blind. Two controlled and supported by societies and church corporations.

Georgia.— [21] Various religious denominations over the state maintain the dependent children of the state.

Illinois.— [22] Orphans of soldiers maintained in special public institution; other dependent children in private institutions. [23] Homes are found by private societies and institutions. [24] Visitation by Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities.

Indiana.— [25] Children between three and seventeen may not be maintained longer than sixty days. [26] Mostly in county homes; also in Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home. [27] State agent, association, township trustee, and poor asylum superintendent.

Indian Territory.— [28] Several industrial schools. Matters of government very crude at present.

Iowa.— [29] On June 30, 1899, there were seventy-six such children in poor asylums; but the number has decreased. [30] Soldiers' orphans and some others maintained in Soldiers' Orphans' Home at Davenport,— state institution. [31] Many dependent children are neglected or put into private institutions because it costs less than at the Soldiers' Orphans' Home. [32] Soldiers' Orphans' Home finds homes.

Kansas.— [33] Children maintained in private institutions by the state. [34] Children's Home Society and Board of Charities find homes.

Kentucky.— [35] 80 of the 119 counties have poor asylums. [36] County judges and Children's Home Society find homes.

Louisiana.— [37] Only one, and that for adults,— in New Orleans. Orphan asylums all sectarian, with small allowance from city.

Maine.— [38] Town and city almshouses. [39] and [40] girls under sixteen, delinquent or in danger of becoming so, sent to the State Industrial School; boys, to the State Reform School. Dependent or orphaned children cared for in orphans' homes and similar institutions, supported by private boards, yet having some state aid. [41] Placing out and adoption systems used by Maine W. C. T. U., also receiving some state aid. Reform schools and orphans' homes also find homes.

Manitoba.— [42] One Home for Incurables. [43] By private subscriptions. [44] Children's Aid Society which reports to the government.

Maryland.— [45] For a period of not longer than ninety days. [46] No child between three and sixteen shall be maintained for longer than ninety days, unless an unteachable idiot, an epileptic or a paralytic, or otherwise so disabled or deformed as to render it incapable of labor or service. [47] Except in schools for the blind, and for the deaf and dumb, and the Training School for the Feeble-minded. [48] In private institutions which receive appropriations from the city or state, or both.

Massachusetts.— [49] Children boarded in family homes. [50] State Board of Charities finds homes for state wards, and town authorities for town wards.

Michigan.— [51] Except the diseased, idiotic, and epileptic, when there is no room in state institutions especially for them, and any for any other reasons who are over twelve years of age and under six months. [52] All dependent children under twelve years of sound mind and body are admissible to State Public School, except those under six months; and those may be, in the discretion of the board. [53] County agents of State Board of Corrections and Charities find homes and supervise children while on indenture, and state agent of school visits children after they have been placed.

Minnesota.— [54] County commissioners are required to bind such minors as apprentices to suitable persons. [55] State Public School for Dependent and Neglected Children. [56] Agents of State Public School. [57] State agents and labor commissioner.

Mississippi.— [58] Most counties have poorhouses. [59] All orphans' homes supported by churches.

Missouri.— [60] City and denominational institutions and Children's Home Society care for dependents. [61] Children's Home Society.

Montana.— [62] State Orphans' Home. [63] Children's Home Society.

Nebraska.— [64] Home for the Friendless, at Lincoln, and several private agencies place children.

New Hampshire.— [65] By county or private charity. [66] County commissioners place children in homes. [67] State Board of Charities has supervision over all dependent children, but commissioners still have absolute control.

New Jersey.— [68] Only until a year old. [69] It is the duty of the State Board of Children's Guardians to remove all except infants within thirty days. [70] State Board of Guardians is required to place them in families, either boarding or free, of the same faith as the children's parents. [71] Only over public wards.

New Mexico.— [72] One Roman Catholic Orphans' School for girls only.

New York.— [73] County, city, and two town almshouses. [74] Children are usually maintained in private institutions at per capita rate paid by localities. [75] A few counties have homes. [76] Also cities and towns. [77] County agents and private societies.

North Carolina.— [78] County homes for aged and infirm. [79] Private institutions receiving state aid. [80] Denominations, county and institutions, aided by state.

North Dakota.— [81] In some instances in Roman Catholic and private hospitals. [82] Children's Home Society.

Ohio.— [83] Children maintained here are usually of unsound mind. [84] Counties not having homes send their children to the nearest one having such.

Oklahoma.— [85] A society maintained by private subscription finds homes.

Ontario.— [86] From two to sixteen years of age excluded. [87] By private charities. Government grant of two cents a day for each child.

Oregon.— [88] Except the blind and deaf-mutes. Others in institutions under private control. [89] Both, also private contributions. [90] Boys' and Girls' Aid Society of Oregon, which receive state and county aid, also private contributions.

Pennsylvania.— [91] Since the passage of the law prohibiting the retention in almshouses of children over two years of age, some few counties have erected homes in which such children are brought up at the county expense.

Rhode Island.— [92] City and town poor asylums and state almshouse. [93] No children over four years of age received. [94] State Home and School takes children over four.

South Carolina.— [95] Only the insane and deaf and dumb.

South Dakota.— [96] South Dakota Children's Home Society.

Tennessee.— [97] Occasionally. [98] Orphan asylums and Tennessee Industrial School. [99] Private institutions find homes, and Judge J. C. Ferris has done a great deal of this work. [100] Board of State Charities has supervision over all charitable institutions of the state.

Texas.—[101] The state, the Masons, and the Odd Fellows have orphanages. [102] County, state, and private contributions. [103] Superintendents of orphans' homes and Children's Home Society.

Utah.— [104] Done by private charities.

Vermont.— [105] Town and city almshouses. [106] In private orphan asylums. [107] Orphan asylums find homes, and selectmen of towns may bind out dependent children.

Virginia.— [108] Maintained in almshouses, in cities known as city hospitals.

Washington.— [109] Homeless and vagrant boys and girls are sent to Reform

School. [110] Superintendent of Reform School and Children's Home Finding Societies.

West Virginia.— [111] Generally in poor asylums. There is an orphanage in Wheeling for Ohio County only.

Wisconsin.— [112] State Public School and Home for Feeble-minded.

NEGLECTED CHILDREN IN NEGLECTED COMMUNITIES.

BY CHARLES R. HENDERSON, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

If we study the evolution of child-saving labors and practice during the past three or four hundred years, we can discover a tendency, a powerful current of charity moving steadily toward a more organic and comprehensive method. From atomistic, individualistic, and fragmentary aims the modern peoples have been working toward solidity, community, and adequacy of organization; from accidental selection to constitutional treatment of the social life process, which shapes or deforms the individual. Yet each of these stages remains significant, and each method has value within its natural limitations.

It is probable that each one of us has gradually passed through each of these stages of comprehension and aim, until larger experience has helped us work out the vital connection between each particular method and the grand social movement to which all partial efforts make their contribution.

Let us begin with the purely individual and impulsive method of rescuing children from misery and evil. There never was an age, since Christianity dawned, when there was an utter absence of systematic and united effort on behalf of neglected children. Yet in primitive conditions, where there is little institutional life, the care of homeless waifs depends on the accident of personal contact with sympathetic people. The problem of the neglected child becomes acute in crowded urban communities and in a society where domestic and group obligations are not felt as binding. Under slavery the child is cared for as chattels and cattle are cared for. Under a régime of free contract the general community must intervene, or the orphan perishes.

The Institutional Stage.— From Mediæval and Reformation times have come down to our day the structures, associations, legacies, and traditions of orphan asylums, supported by churches, endowments, corporations, and governments. This long experience has taught the world a lesson, whose principles are summed up in the report to this Conference in 1899, made by a committee of which Mr. Mulry was chairman. The substance of that report was that the institution, as a place of prolonged residence, is unsuitable, that its function is preparation of normal children for true domestic life, or the segregation of defectives, and that child-saving methods ought to be made to conform to these principles.

The Home-finding Phase.— For homeless and abandoned children of normal physical condition we now accept the principle that good homes, supervised by responsible corporations, public or private, offer the most adequate form of care. Assuming that there is no home or an unfit home, the care of foster parents is the nearest substitute that can be found. For the absolutely dependent child, nothing else can be offered.

But the home-finding plan has its limitations and even its perils. So far from being a panacea, it does not and cannot reach the great majority of neglected children. It can at best only pick out here and there a few of the utterly miserable and abandoned waifs, shelter them from abuse, and replant them in foster homes, while the crowded streets, alleys, and houses of the slums hardly miss them. On this subject we must clear our minds of all cant and illusions, and face the reality. Our placing-out system is patchwork. It is good, but not complete. It will take its place as a subordinate though always necessary factor in the social system of child nurture and care.

Mr. Herman Whittaker, in the *International Socialist Review*, March 1, 1901, said:—

> During a period of eight years some two thousand boys on the farm colony of Dr. Barnardo, in the province of Manitoba, passed under his [the writer's] observation. They were all taken from the London slums, and most of them had served terms in jail; yet not more than 1 per cent. reverted to their former habits. They were not expert farmers, and it could not be expected, yet this may be said for them: they were more efficient than the scions of the English aristocracy who were living in Manitoba on keep-away allowances. . . .
>
> A hundred thousand slum children will be born in London the

present year. Dr. Barnardo, a great and beneficent accident, will turn the current of a thousand lives into decent channels: the London police, stern and forbidding as the hand of fate, will direct the remaining ninety-nine thousand to the jail and gallows.

In view of the limitations of efficiency in all these plans, revealed by modern experience, public thought has been directed to social care of children in their own homes and neighborhoods.

This is a distinct advance upon the institutional and placing-out schemes, since it clearly recognizes the impossibility of transferring the swarming, teeming millions of neglected children to other homes than those into which they have been born. A little reflection upon the immensity of the task will convince any capable thinker of the absurdity of meeting the wants of the multitudes of neglected children by any mode of transfer of responsibility. It is even a serious question whether we have not already gone far to enfeeble and corrupt the sense of parental responsibility by our readiness to relieve fathers and mothers of the weight of their duties. As illustrative of this social care of neglected and imperilled children in their own homes, I shall mention the Children's Aid Society movement, for which the world owes so much to our Boston coworkers. Personal contact with the imperilled child is made, first of all, the occasion for remedial and tonic measures for helping the entire family into self-government.

The Juvenile Court.— Once for all let me protest against the very natural and popular idea that our new juvenile courts in Boston and Chicago are criminal courts. They were established on purpose to avoid bringing children, who are under the age of legal responsibility, into connection with real criminals. They are no more a part of our penal machinery than a probate court, a detention hospital, or a compulsory education agency. Children and adolescents cannot commit crime in the moral and legal sense. They are, even at sixteen years of age, only partially capable of legal crime. They have not and cannot have that foresight of consequences and that balance between judgment and passion which condition full legal responsibility.

The Juvenile Court represents the parental function and duty of the community. It is educational, disciplinary, preventive, and redemptive, never punitive. A dignified and fatherly judge, having at his disposal a corps of probation officers and the resources of homes, schools, and charitable associations, comes to the aid of the

natural parents with all the influence of his lofty authority. Never was there a holier task assigned to a learned officer of law than this labor of love.

The third illustration of direct social action upon children in unfavorable environments is found in the movement to utilize the play impulses of children, and transform them into educative forces. Voluntary associations have opened "vacation schools" to redeem the summer months from the curse of idleness and mischief, and make them fruitful as the fertile fields of the husbandmen. Perhaps it will be found that these play schools show higher educational value than the conventional schools. Playgrounds have been opened, and the recreations of the poor children have been improved and ennobled.

The Care of the Entire Community.— As we advance in experience, with success and failure, we get nearer to the truth that all these sacred, beautiful, and beneficent labors are incomplete and inadequate, and therefore alone must fail. We have been taught that, if we can save the children, the future of society is safe. We have believed this, and made it our dream. It is a dream. It is not true. We cannot save the children apart from their surroundings. The children are — and, for the most part, must remain — organically, vitally one with their homes and their neighborhoods and of the entire community.

The social service in behalf of the neglected child is a city problem, a state problem, a national problem, a world problem. The Holland dykes, constructed by the whole state, protect from the hungry sea both palace and hovel. All must help each.

Chancellor Burwash (in "Eighth Report on Work for Neglected and Dependent Children of Ontario, 1900," page 18) says: —

> We must not forget that, while our agencies for the prevention of crime and for the care of the young are being very largely multiplied, the forces which tend in the opposite direction are perhaps increasing more rapidly than all our efforts. The growth of the large cities, the gathering together of large masses of population, the increase of poverty,— all these things are multiplying; and the movement in a downward direction is increasing its force perhaps even more rapidly than our efforts in the direction of saving children. We have been rather following the tide of evil than anticipating it.

Take the testimony of an eye-witness,* living and working in the

* Mrs. Edna Sheldrake, in the *World Review*, April 27, 1901.

most thickly populated ward of Chicago, where seventy thousand people are crowded within an area of something less than one square mile. There is the highest death-rate; there the largest Catholic parish in the world, with thirty-five thousand communicants; with more than two hundred saloons; the public schools overcrowded, and the poor people, urged by conscience, loaded with the support of parish schools. There is not a public playground, nor a park, and only one small branch of the public library.

"Here, then, is a composite picture of a 'juvenile delinquent.' He is twelve and a half years of age,—one of seven people living in three rooms. These rooms are such as can be rented for $7.50 per month. $8.67 per week pays the rent, buys fuel, food, clothing, pays the fee required in the parochial school, buys books,—in short, provides for all the needs of a family." There is no place for healthy recreation. The house is crowded, dreary, uninviting. Cheap and pernicious museums, with a placard outside, "Ladies not admitted," abound.

The whole of society must rise together. There is froth at the top and dregs at the bottom of society. The neglect of childhood and manhood among the favored and the privileged is one of the depressing influences which weigh upon the children of the slums. Our partial, individual, direct, and selective methods are not in vain. They do actually rescue many thousands of children who, but for these efforts, had perished. But the best result of all this direct mediation of actual social disease is the discovery that we all need to right wrongs.

Only those who have a conceited confidence in their own infallibility will pretend to prophesy what the future form of social control will be. We may be certain from experience that it will be increasingly democratic, that it will give free play and high rewards to exceptional ability, real service, and personal initiative. But we may also be morally certain that the future will discover better ways of regulating the arbitrary caprice of power, of making socially produced wealth contribute to community welfare, and of bringing to all the people all the essential conditions of a worthy human life.

The great and generous Commercial Club raised $225,000 for reform schools. It was good, for we need institutions. But when all that money is spent, and the institutions are crowded, the Sixteenth Ward will still be swarming with its thousands of half-starved, over-

worked, uneducated, neglected children; and we are not one step nearer the solution of our problem. These people must by some means be helped to secure a higher standard of life, higher wages, greater industrial efficiency, so that, while the families will be smaller, there will be more people living a life fit for a human being to live.

The neglected neighborhoods which breed wayward children must be lifted together to a higher level. The people must be the instrument of their own regeneration. No one measure is a panacea. The primary necessity is higher income for the family; but this will not come without higher standards of life, more intelligent co-operation of wage-earners, more refined wants, greater industrial efficiency through technical education and artistic development. Those who are giving their lives to the selective and transplanting process, and who have become conscious of the utter helplessness of this method taken alone, must awaken and enlighten the public mind with illustrations and evidences drawn from life scenes which they have witnessed. Only higher spiritual ideals will transform adverse material conditions, and ideals are communicated by wise social organization from the more gifted to the less fortunate. Our superior endowments and opportunity are our responsibility.

CHILD-SAVING WORK UNDER STATE SUPERVISION, WITH A STATE SCHOOL.

BY C. D. RANDALL, COLDWATER, MICH.

We are to consider, very briefly, three of the most prominent child-saving systems. They are severally in operation in Michigan, Ohio, and Indiana. In each the system is established and maintained by the state. Each state provides for all the dependent children of the classes named in their laws. Each state has large private charities for children, conducted by private or sectarian asylums, none receiving state aid. These states do not discourage private or sectarian charities, but they do not subsidize them. These three adjoining states appear to have adopted their systems according to the best

light they had in the work of child-saving, and no states excel them in the intelligence and liberality of their people.

Each is represented in this discussion by one of its own citizens. I assume that these gentlemen will each commend the system of his own state. I am sure there is much merit in these systems. I am not here to anticipate what they may say, nor am I here to criticise. If there be a rivalry, it will be a generous one, each seeking the improvement of his own by the adoption of the best features of the others. That is the spirit in which these conventions should be conducted, so that progress may follow.

It has fallen to me to speak for the "Michigan System," which was established by our legislature of 1871, and has been in operation since May, 1874. It was the first of its kind ever provided in any government. The Michigan State Public School and its methods came as a revelation after centuries of neglected childhood. The generous church and private charity had been unable to cope with the great evil; and so child dependence increased in greater proportion than the population, and poverty and crime increased likewise. The principles on which the new system was founded were few and simple, mainly that it was the duty and safety of the state to save its dependent children from poverty and crime, and that, acting on such principles, both humanity and economy would be promoted and the average of citizenship elevated.

In the twenty-nine years since the State Public School was established the principle of state support and control has been extensively adopted. At present, about one-fourth of the states have homes for dependent children, from which they are placed in families by indenture or adoption. They are Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Rhode Island, Colorado, Kansas, Montana, Nevada, Nebraska, Iowa, and Texas. In most of these the Michigan law is closely followed. Other states have adopted state support without a state home, and in some without state control. The most noted are New York and California, under the subsidy method, and Ohio and Indiana with district asylums.

Limited by time, I must confine my remarks to the need of a central state school or home. That has always been in our scheme. We consider it a highly necessary factor in child-saving by the state. We only value it for the good it can do. We are wedded to it only because by this means we can sooner restore the children to family

homes, and because we can sooner get them into better homes than we could without it.

The institution is only for a temporary home, a half-way house for the child who has lost its natural home and is on its way to the blessings of another family home. It is to relieve immediate distress. Private charity and all the good and beneficent charities ever established never could provide for all at all times. The state school provides for all. Every dependent child of Michigan of sound mind and body, from six months to twelve years old, may have shelter in the state school, and from there be placed in a home and cared for by the state, and its rights protected during minority. They are to be educated and trained, not for servants, but for citizens.

While in the school, they are educated in the kindergarten and in the primary branches. Yet the most important work done in the state school is the preparation children undergo to fit them for a family home. A liberal per cent. of those admitted can be placed in a family home directly from their counties. They have had fair training in respectable but unfortunate families. In rare cases the deportment of the children is not excelled in the best families, and such are readily placed in excellent homes. But the majority have not had the training that will give them direct admission to the best homes.

Some are born and reared in the midst of wretchedness, penury, and want; and now and then there have been criminal and vicious surroundings that contaminate the very young. The impressible child is affected early by such influences, and often takes on the evil about him. These children need reformatory treatment in a state school. Admitted there, they are at once surrounded by elevating influences, which come from teachers, cottage managers, officers of the school, and others carefully selected for their fitness in caring for children. There they find a cheerful home, comfortable clothing, pleasing associations, work and play, kind treatment, and every one, children included, ready to help them along and upward. In such a preparatory home these children soon lose the depressed, dependent look, the vagrant waif disappears, and in its place there is found a new creature with the bright face of hope that gives promise of the coming citizen. Under such training, our children are fitted for family homes, where 90 per cent. of them do well. Do you find better results with children born and reared in average good families?

We do not recommend large institutions nor long life in them. Some of the private and church asylums retain children as long as three or four years, and in some states without a state home the average is over two years. For the past two years the average in the state public school has been only about five months. We pride ourselves on the small number in the school and the large number in the family homes.

There are other important factors in the Michigan system which will only have bare mention. They are: —

1. There is in every county an agent of the State Board of Corrections and Charities who assists in finding and approving homes for children, and then supervising them during minority.

2. There is one state agent appointed by the board of control of the school, who visits at least once each year all children on indenture, and whose duties are, in some respects, similar to those of the county agent.

3. The university hospital treats, in special cases, dependent children free; and such children find relief, without which they might remain life dependants.

4. Ill-treated children are sent to the school by the court.

5. The law "for the protection of children" largely prevents the importation of dependent children.

6. The state through the State Board of Corrections and Charities supervises all incorporated asylums receiving dependent children, and none can do business unless incorporated under the laws of the state. They are required to report to said State Board, and that board is authorized to visit, inspect, and report.

These are some of the main features of the "Michigan System." Further information can be had by addressing the school or by referring to addresses published in the reports of this Conference held in Denver, San Francisco, St. Louis, Buffalo, and Chicago.

I did not intend comparing results with any other system. But the address of the able comptroller of New York City yesterday in defence of subsidizing private and sectarian charities, in which he asserted that public charities for children have no heart in their work, nor do they train their children in religion, compels me to challenge his arraignment most emphatically. He makes a most serious charge against one-fourth of the states of this Union which have established successful state homes for the temporary care of

dependent children. His assertions may be true of New York City where politics dominates all. But I will say for Michigan that there is no private or sectarian asylum in this or in any country — and seldom in private families — where the children are cared for in sickness and in health with more tender solicitude for their every necessity, comfort, and happiness. And I am sure that in all states having state homes, and in the district homes of Ohio and Indiana the same conditions exist, including conscientious and devoted religious — not sectarian — training on week-days and Sundays.

Our teachers and lady cottage managers, who are the foster mothers of our children, are carefully selected for their special fitness and kindness to children, and have to the largest extent the heart sympathies the distinguished comptroller refers to. We subsidize no charities. Happily, our constitution prevents it. We see how it operates in New York and California, increasing child dependents, private and sectarian asylums, which cease to be private charities and become public charities, entering politics and controlling legislation, weighing on the people like the mountain on Enceladus, so that the result is that each state referred to has about 250 dependent children to each 1,000 of their population, while Michigan has but one to each 12,000.

A few words as to the results in Michigan in child-saving with a state school. About 5,000 children have been admitted into this school. The system, with more workers in the field, could be readily adapted to states of larger population. By the work and influence of this school, child dependence has decreased in Michigan, while the population has increased. No country can make such a showing, working under other systems. The old and discouraging rule for ages has been that dependence increased in ratio more rapidly than the population. Previous to the step taken by Michigan this was accepted as a necessary condition.

The State Public School has caused a very remarkable decrease of child dependence in Michigan. When the school was opened in 1874, the population of the state was 1,334,031. From official reports there were then in the county poorhouses, supported by the counties, 600 children under sixteen years of age. The per capita expense was $75 to $100. The last census showed a population of 2,419,782. The number of children now in the school averages

about 160, and has been about that for some years, and for a long time under 200. There may be a few admissible children in the county poorhouses, but the law prohibits the retention of admissible children there. No children over six months old are allowed in the poorhouses. The children on indenture are wards of the school until they are twenty-one years of age, and yet the number occasionally returned to the school does not increase the average attendance. If it is assumed there may be 40 dependent admissible children in the counties, there would then be only 200 dependent children of sound mind and body supported by the public. The above figures show that in 1874 there was in this state 1 dependent child to each 2,224 of the population, and that twenty-seven years after, in 1901, there is only 1 dependent child to 12,000 of the population. In this twenty-seven years the population of the state has increased 87 per cent.; while child dependence has decreased, in ratio to the population, 400 per cent. In 1874, with 600 dependent children, costing the counties $100 each, the total was about $60,000. Had the ratio to the population then continued to this time, we would now have 1,124 to support at an annual cost of $112,400, showing the State Public School saves the state annually $52,400. From the above data an investigator can carry the calculation farther. This estimate is one from facts. Other states have continued on old systems, at great cost; and others have shifted into new systems which have proved very expensive and detrimental to children.

If you wish to see a state beautiful in its charities, humane and statesmanlike in their establishment, liberal and yet economical in their management, popular with the people, and phenominally successful in the reduction of child dependence, look to Michigan, one of the youngest governments of the world.

CHILD-SAVING UNDER STATE SUPERVISION WITHOUT STATE SCHOOL.

BY T. E. ELLISON, FORT WAYNE, IND.

It is the policy of Indiana to try to make our treatment of children and other dependants conform to the needs of the individual child or person, whether destitute, dependent, or delinquent; that is, to give the help with as much *personality* and as little mechanism as possible.

We try to create as much hope and confidence, joined to a love for and the blessings of home, with as little expense as possible to the public or to the private giver.

We endeavor to impose all charitable burdens as nearly as possible on the neighborhood or municipality where the need arises, and impress upon the recipient as well as the dispenser that there is no large reservoir out of which it is financial wisdom to draw as much as possible while giving as little as may be.

The friends of the betterment of others strove diligently, for a number of years, to create a sentiment among the public that would support rather than pull down a legalized bureau, before they demanded the establishment of a board of state charities. Hence, the soil having been prepared, the seeming rapid realization of the schemes of the McCullochs, the Nicholsons, the Elders, the Johnsons, the Bicknells, and others.

We have had orphans' homes for years. We have had women and men who loved and helped in the care of children since the state existed. But their success, while great in many instances, was, like indiscriminate almsgiving, not always of the best.

We investigated the Michigan school system; and, while recognizing its many merits, and especially the merits and goodness of those in charge of it, conceived that it was not according to our principles. There are in every community noble men and women whose noblest instincts and abilities are kept keenly alive by the opportunities and obligations of doing good.

We felt and still feel that, when a great state declares that it will gather all the dependent children within its borders into one vast flock and parcel them out, no matter how well it may do it, that the

great impulsive and loving heart-beats of the several neighborhoods will become chilled, then cold, then dead. No system that checks human sympathy, that cools the desire to do good, or in any way relieves those naturally inclined to kindness from the obligation of caring for those of whom is the very kingdom of heaven, is a good one.

If you had looked at the Michigan State School a few years ago, you would have found that some counties had never placed a child within its walls, and that large counties like Wayne, where Detroit is situated, had placed but a few compared with the hundreds needing such care, and that the counties nearest the school had placed the greatest proportion under its care. In addition to this the state exercised no supervision or control over any agency for the care or placing of its dependent children except those who were directly the pupils of the State School. In addition, you would have found that the work of some so-called children's home-finding associations were not above suspicion. Knowing all this, you might be pardoned if you suggested that the system could not be satisfactory.

The situation in Indiana, when the law was passed, was similar to that in other states. Statistically, we had 92 counties with 38 orphan homes supported by 52 counties, the children of the other 35 counties being kept in poor asylums,— 1,661 children in all. These homes and asylums were of all grades in quality. There was no official supervision of the orphans' homes, and limited supervision of the private homes where the children were from time to time placed. The counties paid 25 cents per day for the care of each child. The legislature of 1897 passed an act giving the Board of State Charities authority to supervise and control this work, requiring all orphans' homes receiving any public funds to report to it and be guided by it. The main provisions of this law are as follows: —

First. It provides that no child over three years old should be kept in a poor asylum.

Second. It provides that no orphans' home should receive aid from a county for a child who had not been released to it, and who was not dependent upon the public for support because of want of means or relatives able to support it. We have a humane law that makes it a misdemeanor for any one having care of a child to neglect or fail to support it. It was also provided that no support should be received for a child when it did not find a suitable home for such

child within one year, unless there were a good excuse therefor by reason of some defect of or advantage to the child.

Third. The law provides that it must be shown that no person or association made or gained a profit by keeping the child.

This law authorizes and requires the various associations to place out children in proper homes, and to visit them as often as the best interests of the child require, at least once a year until it is eighteen years of age.

These orphan homes are required to report to the Board of State Charities daily as to the movements of its charges, and monthly such information as may be required of it.

Under this law the Board of State Charities was given $2,000 a year to employ an agent to see that the law was carried out, to visit all the children placed out, and to find homes for other children.

At first the stringency of the law as to supervision and the character of control kept some homes and counties from taking advantage of it. The best orphans' homes came in first; and public sentiment forced the others to change their management, till all soon became integral parts of the system.

The legislature of 1899 increased the appropriation to $4,500, and that of 1901 to $6,000, with which we employ three agents, two men and one lady, paying salaries, travelling expenses, and the incidental office expense of their work. Since 1897 we have secured a law that prevents the importation of children into our state under severe penalties, to prevent our state from being the dumping-ground for the undesirable children of other states, as it had been made by some so called home-finding and children's aid associations.

Results.— The character of the orphan homes has been greatly improved. The children in them get better care and are much better fitted to be placed in family homes than they were before.

No child over three years of age is growing up in and being contaminated by the enviroments of the poorhouse. Formerly children were kept, on an average, about three years in the orphan home before being placed. We have already reduced that time to twenty months. This saves the state the board and care of the children for sixteen months, which at the rate of about $100 a year is in the aggregate a vast sum. But, more than that, it gives the child sixteen months more of natural true life within a private home, where it cannot but acquire more manhood or womanhood.

No child is at this time placed in a home until that home has been personally visited and its inner life investigated.

It also has brought about a watchfulness over the children by frequent visitation of the state and local agents that prevents impositions upon the children or their remaining in improper homes. A good home for one child may not be a good home for another, and it is only by frequent visits that the question whether the home and child are suited to each other can be learned.

We have driven out and are keeping out of all orphan homes all children who were put there as a storage-house because of their being troublesome or unwanted, as well as those whom some parents desired to be relieved of for improper reasons.

This department of the work of our board has now about 2,400 children under its control and supervision. During the year ending October 1 last, 662 children were placed in foster homes and 415 restored to their parents by all agencies. The state agents now have placed over 400 children in homes in whose placement the county homes took no part. We have brought our county and state institutions with over a thousand township trustees into as harmonious working as human enterprises for humanity can, in so short a time, be made to work. We have aroused and fostered local interest in child-saving and local pride in home institutions, keeping every part of the state alive to the importance of child-saving effort, thus securing active and intelligent support for such future advance movements as time and experience shall show to be desirable.

THE INDIANA BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS ACT.

BY EVANS WOOLLEN,

ATTORNEY FOR THE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS OF MARION COUNTY, INDIANA.

The Indiana Board of Children's Guardians Act has been amended by the General Assembly four times, has been construed by the Supreme Court of the state three times, and has been tried at Indianapolis continuously for twelve years.

The Provisions of the Act of March 11, 1901.— The Act provides that the circuit judge may appoint three men and three women in each county as a board of children's guardians. The board may file in the circuit court a verified petition for the custody of any child whose condition is believed to be dangerously degrading. Formerly the provision was that the child should be taken by the sheriff until the trial and final judgment of the court. This occasioned more hostile criticism than any other provision of the act; and at the recent session of the General Assembly we yielded — wisely, I think — to a demand that the act should be amended so as to provide for the child remaining with its parents until the final judgment. However, under the amended act the court may, on a showing that the child is likely either to be carried out of the jurisdiction before the trial or to suffer irreparable injury, order it taken immediately and detained to await the final judgment.

The trial is had as in other civil causes, and an appeal may be taken. If the allegations of the petition are sustained by the evidence, the court enters judgment accordingly. Now the essence of the Act is that the court may enter judgment dissolving the parental relationship absolutely and irrevocably. If the parent thereafter reform and seek to recover the child, he must approach the board, not the court, and ask, as any stranger, to be allowed to adopt the child. In other words, as divorced husband and wife may be united only by remarriage, so divorced parent and child may be united only by adoption. And, as alimony may be required of the divorced husband for the support of the wife, so, under our procedure, alimony, as

it were, may be required of the divorced parent for the support of the child. After the judgment the child may be detained at the board's home, may be committed to an orphan asylum, may be indentured or adopted, may, in short, be disposed of as the court or as the board, subject to the court's approval, shall elect.

The Judicial Construction of the Act.— In construing and sustaining the constitutionality of this act, the Supreme Court of Indiana has held that, in all essentials, it is merely declaratory. By that is meant that our circuit court, having the ordinary equity jurisdiction, may, without special statutory authority, render a judgment transferring the custody of a child from its parents to a guardian. In other words, the Board of Children's Guardians Act merely spells out for the courts the power which they already possess, merely creates machinery for getting that done which may be done without the machinery.

The Supreme Court has also held that the custody of a child may be transferred from its parents to a board of children's guardians or to any other guardian without notice to the child; has held, too,— and this is very important,— that a judgment against a parent awarding the custody of his child to a board of children's guardians stands as any other valid judgment, and that no petition will be heard for its vacation or modification. This last decision established, in other words, the finality of the procedure under the act.

The Results under the Act.— As to results, it may fairly be said that they have been good, else some one of the six General Assemblies since 1889 would have repealed the act. Boards have been organized in four counties. The board at Indianapolis has investigated 1,208 cases. The records of its secretary, Mrs. Julia H. Goodhart, who is the inspiration and mainstay of the work, exhibit the alphabetically arranged histories of over twenty-five hundred children; and all these, it is to be remembered, are in one county. The board has lost barely more than a tenth of all the cases filed in court. This indicates much as to the painstaking care with which the board itself has investigated every case before ordering prosecution. Latterly fewer cases have had to be prosecuted, and this we interpret to mean that a dread of the Board of Children's Guardians has become an efficient deterrent. Indeed, the records show 542 children permanently provided for by the board during its twelve years without legal process as against 459 formally awarded to it by the court.

The critical question is, of course, as to the history of the children after they have come into the control of the board. The answer is that of all the wards of the board, taken though they have been from prostitutes, drunkards, thieves, and the like, just eighteen, so far as we know, have gone to the bad.

Those of us who have been identified with the work have become more and more impressed with the idea that a board of children's guardians is a frightfully dangerous piece of machinery, and is to be handled only with the extremest caution. The danger is in the tendency to forget that the work is in no sense charitable. Thousands of children need charity where only scores need separation from their parents. And the important thing — always to be remembered — is that no child, howsoever unfortunate its condition, should be taken by a board of children's guardians unless it is in imminent danger of becoming a serious menace to society.

THE COUNTY HOMES OF OHIO.

BY JOSEPH P. BYERS,

SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, OHIO.

A little more than twenty years ago the dependent children of Ohio, to the number of nearly two thousand annually, were being cared for in the infirmaries. This fact was brought to the attention of the people of the state through the Board of State Charities. The unwholesome conditions by which they were surrounded made it desirable to remove them as speedily as possible to more favorable homes. The solution of the problem was found in the establishment of so-called county homes, remote from and in no way connected with the infirmaries. The legislation under which the first homes were organized clearly shows that their purpose was to provide a temporary shelter, and that the location of each child in a family should be the final aim. Thus the home was to become the medium through which dependent children were to be placed in families. Full recognition was given to the value of the family as against institutional training.

The first and almost immediate result was the removal of children from the county infirmaries. A law was passed prohibiting the maintenance of children in these institutions, and it was but a comparatively short time until many of the counties had erected and equipped county homes. Other counties in which no homes were organized, sent their children to the homes of neighboring counties.

The second result, one that became apparent later, was the growth of the institution idea, due partially to the failure of home officials to recognize the true purpose of the home, but more to the inadequate facilities for placement. The duties of the superintendents and matrons required their presence at the home so much of the time that they were unable to make any sustained and systematic effort to secure homes in families, to investigate these homes, to place children in them, and to give children so placed after-supervision. To counteract this institutional tendency, a law was passed authorizing the employment of a "placing agent." This law has not been taken advantage of except in a few instances.

At the present time 48 out of the 88 counties in the state maintain county homes, each under a separate board of trustees. 5 counties make separate provision for children, but their homes are under the immediate management of the board of infirmary directors. In 9 counties the children are maintained in private homes, the county commissioners paying an agreed price for their maintenance, per capita. In several of these latter homes, however, property purchased by the county has been transferred to private societies, which administer the homes under the laws of the state, very much as county homes are administered. In 25 counties no homes are maintained, either public or semi-public. Most of these 25 counties, however, make provision for their dependent children in the county homes of other counties. In one county children are boarded out in families by the infirmary directors.

On April 25, 1901, 51 homes — including 45 county homes, 2 semi-public and 4 maintained by infirmary directors — reported total number of children on hand of 2,260. They reported, in addition, 342 children out on trial. The average length of time these 2,260 children had been under public care was slightly over three years. The average age of these children was a little over nine years. Since Jan. 1, 1900, up to April 25, 1901, these 51 homes report 1,186 children as placed in family homes.

The disadvantages of our system as developed by experience, are:

First. The apparent necessity of carrying on a constant warfare against the *institution idea.*

Second. The at present inadequate facilities for finding homes for children, and placing them therein under proper supervision.

Third. A natural consequence of inadequate placing facilities,— the short-distance placing of a large number of children. Experience has long since proven the desirability of placing children, as a rule, at a distance from their former homes.

The advantages of our home system are: —

First. Complete provision for the care of all dependent children. Our laws do not exclude children from homes on account of physical defects or deformities. It thus happens that a certain number of children under care are not placeable.

Second. Children who at the time of their reception in the homes are not placeable on account of some slight deformity or habit may receive the care and attention necessary to fit them for placing in private families.

Third. Our homes are under the direction of non-partisan, unpaid boards of trustees. From this it happens that we have in Ohio a very large number of men and women directly interested in and solicitous for the welfare of our dependent children. To these facts are due in no small degree the high standing of our homes, the general intelligence of our citizens in matters connected therewith, and the good work already done.

The disadvantages I have heretofore mentioned are not without an easy remedy. If adequate placing facilities were provided, either through the medium of state or county or district agents, and proper supervision given to this placing work, these defects or disadvantages would largely disappear. It is likely, at the same time, the aggregate cost of maintaining our home system would be diminished, and it is quite certain that the average length of time children remain in the homes would be very much reduced.

THE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS, DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BY JOHN W. DOUGLASS, AGENT.

The Board of Children's Guardians of the District of Columbia was created by act of Congress approved July 26, 1892, but did not begin the reception and care of children until July 1, 1893. To the late Amos G. Warner, then superintendent of charities of the District, more than to any other one man, is due the credit for the conception of the scheme and its crystallization into law. Child-caring work was in a somewhat chaotic condition, having been carried on in an irresponsible and haphazard way, without supervision or system. Private agencies had been so "liberally subsidized by the government that dependent children were in great demand." To establish some measure of public service, to centralize authority and responsibility for the care of children maintained at public expense, to afford an outlet for the congested condition of institutions, to act as the intermediary between the public crib and the necessities of child dependency, were among the reasons which seemed to justify the creation of such a board.

The board consists of nine members, appointed for a term of three years, by the judges of the police court and the judge holding the criminal court, who serve without compensation, There must be at least three representatives of each sex in its membership, which has thus far consisted of six gentlemen and three ladies. They have the customary officers, president, vice-president, and secretary, elected annually in accordance with by-laws formulated and adopted by themselves, and hold regular monthly meetings, at which the agents submit written reports and recommendations, and special meetings whenever exigencies require. As at present constituted, five of the nine members have served since July 1, 1893, the beginning of its work. The chief executive officers are denominated agents, and are limited by law in number to two. The present office force consists of the two agents, five clerks, and a messenger. Rooms for office purposes are rented. Appropriations are made annually by Congress in the District of Columbia. All moneys are

disbursed by a bonded agent. The appropriation for the current year is $7,000 for administrative and $44,950 for general purposes.

The general policy and administration of the work is wholly non-sectarian and non-partisan. Its scope is as broad as child-dependency itself. The law creating the board gave it jurisdiction over and imposed duties touching classes of children widely divergent in character and needs as to treatment, including the infant, the destitute, the neglected, the abandoned, the morally exposed, the delinquent, and the feeble-minded, of all colors, races, and religions. Broad powers were conferred in placing the wards in institutions or boarding homes, in homes on indenture or apprenticeship terms, or in homes for adoption; and all cases are under the board's continuous and binding guardianship, which stands in place of parent and reaches to the age of majority. These points — the wide field of duty, the broad range allowed for its accomplishment, and continuous guardianship — are the striking features of the law under which the board operates. To organize and put into successful operation such a work required an agent of unusual ability. Such a one was found in the person of Herbert W. Lewis, a valued member of this Conference. To his masterful genius for organization, his pre-eminent executive ability, and his intelligent fidelity to the work for four years, is very largely due what success has been attained. All children received under guardianship must be so ordered by a court having jurisdiction, upon a sworn information obtained by careful investigation, setting forth the grounds and after the hearing in open court. Parental rights and feelings are always respected, and all interested parties are notified of the hearing and given the privilege of being present and heard. The question of dependency is thus settled by an arm of the government; and the child becomes a ward of the state, represented for this purpose by this board. Petitions for commitment are usually filed by one of the agents after a searching inquiry which must affirmatively answer "Does the subject *need* public guardianship:" and "Is it entitled as a *bona fide* resident to public aid?" But any citizen, having knowledge, can file the necessary petition and ask for commitment. Every effort is made to adjudicate cases without the necessity of a commitment. To preserve the home and self-respect of parents and strengthen home ties, much labor is expended. The board was not created and is not administered as a mere public convenience, rather as an arm of the government to meet real necessities.

Placements.— Infants and small children are boarded in family homes. These must be in a healthful section of the city or country, on main streets, and never in alleys or courts. They must be in good sanitary condition and open to abundance of sunshine. Never more than two infants, and rarely more than two boarding children of any age, are placed in one family. The rate of payment is $10 per month for one infant, or $18 per month for two in a family; $9 per month for children from three to eight years, one in family, or $16 for two. The care-takers must supply all the needs of the boarding children from the compensation allowed, save medical attendance. A physician is employed by the board at a regular salary to attend all wards in the District of Columbia in sickness and counsel with the nurses as to daily care. All such wards and their homes and care-takers are at all times in close touch with the office. Older children are boarded in institutions, the board having entered into formal contracts with several at stipulated rates, varying from $100 to $200 each per annum. While in institutions, the wards are amenable to all the rules of discipline and government of that institution. The board reserves the right to visit its wards at all reasonable times, conversing in private and withdrawing him at any time, if necessary.

The Feeble-minded.— The Forty-fourth Congress authorized the Secretary of the Interior to place indigent feeble-minded children, upon examination and certification by the president of Columbia Institution for Deaf and Dumb, in some institution for the education of the feeble-minded. Under this authority certain children of that class were placed at Elwyn, Pa. In the Fifty-second Congress the authority for future placements of this character was transferred to the Board of Children's Guardians. A certificate as to imbecility from the president of the deaf and dumb college appears still necessary, but the investigation as to indigency prior to reception and the actual placements and payments are made through the office. On May 1, 27 children of the feeble-minded class were at Elwyn, Pa., at an expense of $225 each per annum for 25 and $100 per annum each for 2, and 17 at the Virginian Training School at Falls Church, Va.

Temporary Work.— The board also does temporary work, receiving children for fixed periods, three or six months, to relieve temporary distress.

The Results.— On May 1, 1901, there had been committed to the

care and custody of the board during minority 977 children, and 793 children had been under temporary care. Of the former, 262 had passed from its control by reason of death, marriage, release by the court, having attained majority, or other reasons, leaving on this date 715 active wards. These were distributed geographically as follows:

IN FREE HOMES.

District of Columbia: On trial	116	
Indentured	77	
Apprenticed	29	222
New Jersey: On trial	3	
Indentured	1	
Apprenticed	1	5
Maryland: On trial	15	
Indentured	48	
Apprenticed	7	70
Virginia: On trial	24	
Indentured	58	
Apprenticed	6	88
Pennsylvania: On trial	4	
Indentured	3	
Apprenticed	1	8
Delaware: On trial	2	
Indentured	10	
Apprenticed	1	13
New York: On trial	3	
Indentured	2	5
Massachusétts: On trial		1
Vermont: Indentured		1
Connecticut: Indentured		1
Ohio: Indentured		1
West Virginia: Indentured	4	
Apprenticed	1	5
		420
In boarding homes		116
In district institutions		66
In Maryland institutions		68
At large		45
		715

Of these, 420 were in family homes, growing normally in the soul-reaching and uplifting influences which the environment of a good home exert to counteract and destroy hereditary pernicious tendencies. Such tendencies may lie dormant for life if not nurtured in contaminating surroundings. 116 were in private boarding homes, and 125 in institutions where board is paid. Thus it will be seen that considerably more than one-half of the wards are at no expense to the state, save for supervision, which last year was $13.22 per capita. When the wretched physical, mental, and in many cases moral conditions of the children at reception are considered, it seems quite remarkable that so large a number could be engrafted successfully in the family life. The system of dealing with infants and young children has been phenomenally successful, as the following percentages of mortality for seven years among children under two years of age shows: 1894, 21.95; 1895, 25; 1896, 26.73; 1897, 28.57; 1898, 16.12; 1899, 18.98; 1900, 21.33.

The number of children of the class mentioned dealt with varied from 42 in 1894 to 75 in 1900. The plan of boarding its wards with parents or relatives, as is done in New South Wales and elsewhere, has never been adopted here. Its liability to great abuse and its tendency to weaken parental effort and responsibility are imperative reasons against its practice.

Institutions.— Institutions are made large use of as temporary homes, where the ragged and dirty may be clothed and cleansed, and the unruly disciplined and taught the wholesome lesson of obedience to constituted authority. But the board is opposed to the policy of massing large numbers of children in institutions for long periods of time, and transferring them from one institution to another as they grow older. It believes that this system not only does not fit, but positively unfits, a child for the duty of real citizenship. As agencies for the relief of temporary distress, as disciplinary forces, as way stations to the family home, institutions form important links in the child-caring chain. With all such institutions and agencies, public, semi-public, and private, this board works in cordial and hearty co-operation.

Return of Children to Parents.— The question is often asked if children legally taken from parents for cause are ever returned to their care. The guardianship and control of wards is continuous until majority, unless set aside by order of the court. Where the

board shall place each ward is entirely at its discretion. As a matter of fact, borne out by past records, the question of return of children to parents rests with the latter. If they change their habits and mode of life, because of the viciousness of which their children were taken under public guardianship, and render themselves worthy, proof of which must be beyond question, the board never hesitates to place on trial, subject to supervision and recall, the children lawfully taken from the parents. Scores of families have in this way been reunited and permanently benefited. The efficacy and efficiency of continuous public guardianship, exercised discreetly, at all times in perfect co-operation with worthy relatives, is daily demonstrated.

Probation Work.— Under an act of Congress approved March 3, 1901, the courts of the District are forbidden to send juvenile offenders under seventeen years of age to jail or the workhouse. Instead they may be committed to the board, temporarily or permanently, or to the Reform School. The majority of such offenders have been committed to the board, which has placed them on probation with relatives or friends. In their homes they are visited, advised, and guided. The board thus stands for the probation work recently inaugurated for juvenile offenders.

Many phases of the work have not been touched upon for lack of time. Its influence upon legislation affecting children, as a disseminator of knowledge concerning child-saving and child-care, as a bureau of information, as a deterrent to the vicious, as advocate for the friendless and mistreated, renders the Board of Children's Guardians unique and versatile in character, and its work a power for good in the whole community.

X.

Juvenile Reformatories and Industrial Schools.

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE JUVENILE REFORMATORY.

BY EDWIN P. WENTWORTH,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE STATE REFORM SCHOOL, PORTLAND, ME.

When the nineteenth century opened, the public conscience was awakened. Already the work of prison reform was going forward. Howard and Beccaria had passed from the field of action; but their mantles had fallen upon worthy successors, and the Christian civilization of the nineteenth century grappled in earnest with the problems of criminal jurisprudence and of prison management. It may readily be believed that, when philanthropists and statesmen reflected upon the fact that little boys and girls convicted of petty offences were thrust into the common jail, to associate with vile and hardened offenders, there to receive instruction in crime that would eventually make them hopeless criminals, who would burden and menace society, they perceived the necessity of an institution to which youthful criminals could be committed, to be reformed in character and restored to the world as honest and law-abiding persons. Dr. Griscom, a prominent member of a society in New York for the prevention of pauperism, voiced a prevalent sentiment when, in an elaborate report presented to his society, he said: —

Every person who frequents the out-streets of this city must be forcibly struck with the ragged and uncleanly appearance, the vile language, and the idle and miserable habits of great numbers of children, most of whom are of an age suitable for schools or for some useful employment. The parents of these children are, in all probability, too poor or too degenerate to provide them with clothing fit for them to be seen with in a school, and know not where to place

them in order that they may find employment or be better cared for. Accustomed, in many instances, to witness at home nothing in the way of example but what is degrading; early taught to observe intemperance, and to hear obscene and profane language without disgust; obliged to beg, and even encouraged to acts of dishonesty, to satisfy the wants induced by the indolence of their parents,— what can be expected but that such children will in due time become responsible to the law for crimes which have thus in a manner been forced upon them? Can it be consistent with real justice that delinquents of this character should be consigned to the infamy and severity of punishment, which must inevitably tend to perfect the work of degradation, to sink them still deeper in corruption, to deprive them of their remaining sensibility to the shame of exposure, and establish them in all the hardihood of daring and desperate villany? Is it possible that a Christian community can lend its sanction to such a process without any effort to rescue and to save? If the agents of our municipal government stand toward the community in the moral light of guardians of virtue; if they may be justly regarded as the political fathers of the unprotected,— does not every feeling of justice urge upon them the principle of considering these juvenile culprits as falling under their special guardianship, and claiming from them the right, which every child may demand of its parent, to be well instructed in the nature of its duties before it is punished for the breach of their observance? Ought not every citizen who has a just sense of the reciprocal obligations of parents and children to lend his aid to the administrators of the law in rescuing these pitiable victims of neglect and wretchedness from the melancholy fate which almost inevitably results from an apprenticeship in our common prisons?

In conformity with the suggestions made by Dr. Griscom and others, a society was incorporated in New York in 1824 for the reformation of juvenile delinquents. In 1825, on the first day of January, this society formally opened the New York House of Refuge, said to be the first governmental reformatory for criminal youth ever established in the world. Private charity had previously done something for wayward boys both in this country and in Europe. In some instances children in workhouses and other places of confinement had been separated from older criminals, and given religious instruction. Cellular confinement for juvenile criminals was begun as early as 1667; and San Michele, in Rome, was opened in 1704 for this class of offenders. The Red Hill Reformatory was opened in England in 1788. But to the United States of America, and to the nineteenth century, belong the honor of establishing the first gov-

ernmental juvenile reformatory in the world. The New York House of Refuge, although controlled by a corporation, received children convicted by the courts, and was chiefly supported by public funds.

The first quarter of the nineteenth century saw the establishment in the United States of only one public juvenile reformatory. The second quarter of the century saw the establishment of five similar institutions, if we may accept as conclusive the list of the juvenile reformatories of the United States by Mr. Homer Folks, published in the *Charities Review* for May, 1900. During this second quarter of the century, or, to be more specific, in 1833, Dr. J. H. Wichern established a reformatory called Das Rauhe Haus, near Hamburg, Germany, which was destined to exert a great influence upon the world, inasmuch as it was the first practical application of the so-called "cottage" or family system, since adopted in reformatory institutions in many parts of the world, and particularly in the United States of America. Fifteen years later, in 1848, what is now called the Lyman School for Boys was established at Westboro, Mass., the first institution wholly under state control ever established in the United States for the reform of juvenile offenders.

During the third quarter of the nineteenth century the number of juvenile reformatories, according to the same authority, increased from 6 to 32,— an increase indicating that such institutions were considered a necessity of modern civilization, and also that these institutions were found to operate successfully in reforming the youth committed to their care. The last quarter of the nineteenth century has greatly exceeded the record of all previous years. I have compiled a list of 98 juvenile reformatories in the United States. These institutions contain a population of not less than 25,000 boys and girls. The value of the grounds and buildings belonging to these institutions amounts to nearly $20,000,000, and the total expenditures for the year 1898–99 were about $3,500,000.

How wonderful and how significant has been the progress in the United States of the reformatory institutions for the young during the preceding century from the one small experimental institution in 1825 to the ninety-eight well-established and successful institutions in 1901!

If the rapid multiplication of juvenile reformatories is a fact of great significance, of equal, if not greater importance is the marvellous development in the methods used in these institutions for the reform of the youthful criminal. The modern reformatory is an evolu-

tion which bears comparatively little resemblance to the early type from which it has been developed. Even the very names given to these institutions are significant of the changes that have taken place in them. The first reformatories were called "houses of refuge," and the dominant idea seemed to be to furnish a refuge for the youthful criminal where he could undergo the imprisonment authorized by statute and yet be shielded from the contaminating presence of old and hardened criminals. These houses of refuge were established by as intelligent, philanthropic, and public-spirited men as ever lived; but they were pioneers, and their work was only experimental. These early institutions differed little from the penal institutions to which adults were sentenced except in the ages of the prisoners confined. The imprisonment of youth in penal institutions, even when supplemented by scholastic teaching and religious instruction, neither satisfied the demands of the public nor achieved the results fondly anticipated by the friends of these institutions. Gradually houses of refuge changed into reform schools, in which education was the dominant idea. Experience soon taught that education alone, indispensable as it may be, does not necessarily touch the heart and reform the character of the criminal: it may, indeed, but render him the more dangerous to the community. The family plan imported from Europe did much to improve the character of our reformatories, and to the great state of Ohio we are indebted for the first family reform school for boys in the United States. Next came the idea of manual training and trades-teaching; and this idea has revolutionized the juvenile reformatories of the United States, and made possible the great and useful institutions that are now the pride of our country. Reform schools changed their names to industrial schools, and as such accomplished a greater work than ever before in their history. Nevertheless, I believe it to be true that those of us actively engaged in reformatory work are discovering that, while scholastic education, moral and religious instruction, manual and industrial training, and trades-teaching are all necessary factors in the accomplishment of the ends aimed at, a reformatory must be more than a house of refuge from the evil associations of the world, more than a public school for reform, more than a cottage institution, a workshop, a manual-training or industrial school. It must be a home in the truest and best sense, — a place where comforts and refining influences abound, where love reigns in the human heart and casts its radiance abroad, where evil

dwarfs and withers away for want of nutrition, and where, amid the sunshine of hope and love and happy companionship, that which is best in the child's nature grows and buds, and in due time breaks forth in richest blossom. No wonder, then, that, in recognition of the predominant idea of home, institutions for the reform of juvenile delinquents in many parts of our country are now adopting the name "home" as a part of the title of their institution, as, for instance, in New Jersey, Illinois, West Virginia, and elsewhere.

As we contemplate the subject of juvenile reform, we may well rejoice at the astonishing progress made in the past and the high rank our reformatory institutions have now attained. One of the most eminent prison reformers of our country, the venerable General Brinkerhoff, after visiting many of the juvenile reformatories of this country and of Europe, gives it as his deliberate judgment that the juvenile reformatories of the United States are far in advance of similar institutions in Europe. The present excellence of our institutions is the result of the laborious efforts of the past, prosecuted amid difficulties and discouraging failures. It is said that "history is the torch which illumines the path we soon must tread." If so, it may be well to briefly consider some of the principal facts which have been established by past experience, that we may profit by them in our future work. I therefore call your attention to a very few of these leading truths.

First. Juvenile reformatories are a necessity of modern civilization. Boys and girls will sometimes be wayward, will sometimes persistently tread the paths of vice, and defy the laws of the land; and, when the private home can exert no restraining influence, commitment to a public reformatory becomes a necessity. The confinement of juvenile offenders in any place where they can associate with hardened criminals is an offence against common decency, as well as public policy, and should never be tolerated in any civilized community. Yet I regret to say that there are still places in our country, where boys are confined in jails, penitentiaries, or workhouses, where they are taking their elementary instruction in vice and crime from older associates, listening with rapt attention to stories of burglary and violence, or with feverish thirst drinking in revolting tales of debauchery and sensuality, thus preparing themselves to be the actors in similar deeds of daring wickedness in years to come. In many parts of our country there is urgent need of legislation to effect-

ually end this promiscuous association of old and young offenders; and the first step toward ending it is to provide suitable reformatories to which young criminals may be committed.

Second. Juvenile reformatories do reform. No fact could be better established than this. Those who have had experience in the various institutions devoted to this work are unanimous in asserting its truth. No reasonable person claims that all bad boys and girls can be made good. The Saviour himself wept because of the unconverted, whose hearts he could not reach. But it is true that a large proportion of all the boys and girls committed to modern reformatories are reclaimed from a life of sin. Our reformatories are successfully prosecuting the work they were designed to do; and it is the duty of the public to take a lively interest in their welfare, and, by wise legislation, intelligent supervision, and liberal appropriations of public money, enable them to reach the highest possible efficiency.

Third. Juvenile reformatories must accomplish their work by educational rather than by retributive or repressive measures. An evil heart cannot be conquered by force of arms. Tying down the safety-valve will not prevent the pent-up steam from bursting the boiler. The evil in a boy's heart may be repressed by deterrent punishments; but it still exists there, and sooner or later will burst forth with increased fury. Not by direct assault can we overcome the evil hearts of our juvenile delinquents, but rather by the indirect but gentle methods of education, using this word in its broadest signification.

Fourth. The educational processes must include physical training, scholastic training, manual and industrial training, moral and spiritual training. An education which does not include them all in proper proportion is unsymmetrical and defective, and will not be productive of the best results.

Fifth. So far as is possible, juvenile reformatories must teach the occupations or trades which the children are likely to follow when they go out into the world to earn their own living. Many of these children do not have good homes of their own, nor parents who will find them suitable employment and care for them until they become self-supporting. Hence these children must be fitted to earn a living before they leave the reformatory, as otherwise they will go out into the world only to be tramps or to join the great army of criminals.

Sixth. The juvenile reformatory must be a home. Parental care and love must be paramount. For younger children the cottage system is far superior to the congregate on account of the greater opportunity to deal with each child according to its individual temperament and personal characteristics, because of the greater freedom from irksome restraint, because of the facilities it affords for better classification of the delinquents, and, finally, because the cottages can approach more nearly to an ideal home for the children than can any great building occupied as a congregate school. The physical surroundings should be made pleasant. Flowers, pictures, books, games, and other accompaniments of the best private home should abound; and every effort should be made to render the life of the children hopeful and happy.

Seventh. A juvenile reformatory should never be regarded as a "penal" institution. A commitment to it should not be regarded as a "punishment," and life in such an institution should never be called "imprisonment." The use of such words shows a misconception of the nature of the institution, and tends to the injury of the children committed to it. In many states the laws should be so revised as to strike out these objectionable words and all others of like import.

Eighth. Release from reformatories should be conditional. An intelligent supervision of all children out on parole should be maintained, and their conduct and treatment carefully investigated. Paroled children not doing well should be returned to the institution for further discipline, or transferred to an intermediate reformatory. Upon the faithfulness and efficiency of this supervision of paroled children the usefulness of a reformatory very largely depends.

Ninth. The management of reformatories should be wholly divorced from politics. Success can be achieved only when such institutions are controlled by persons of experience and ability, whose tenure of office depends upon the efficiency of their service, and not upon the vicissitudes of political parties. Whenever such institutions become the "spoils of office," subject to the patronage of politicians, abuses are sure to creep in, and general mismanagement, incompetency, and corruption will follow. Public office should be regarded as a public trust; and personal fitness should be the test, and the only test, for positions in the public service of reformatory institutions.

But time will not permit the further enumeration of the important

lessons taught us by the failures and successes of past years. By the methods thus briefly suggested our best modern reformatories are accomplishing their work, and our future progress must be along the lines already laid down. Everything which enters into the daily life of reformatory boys and girls must contribute its share of discipline to the attainment of the ends desired. Work, rest, sleep, recreation, study, pleasant surroundings, agreeable occupations, healthful exercises, nutritious food for body, mind, and soul, are some of the requisites necessary to complete and lasting reform. They are the means which the successful reformer must use for the accomplishment of his purpose, as the physician uses his medicines or the mariner uses his sails and rudder. Along these same lines future progress will surely be made, and grander results than we have yet known will be achieved. There are possibilities that we have not yet perceived, there are problems we have not yet solved. The influence of heredity in determining human character has not yet been gauged, nor are we certain to what extent heredity can be overcome by environment. We can weigh and measure the human body, and record the progress of its growth in size and strength. By appropriate means, we can strengthen weak muscles, stimulate sluggish organs, reduce excessive development, and thus produce an approximate symmetry of physique. Psychologists are learning how to measure and record certain mental activities, and are seeking for means to stimulate and repress them. But as yet no methods have been originated by which the characteristics of a child's moral nature may be discovered and recorded in scientific terms, or by which the growth of the moral nature may be accurately measured. We have not yet provided systematic gymnastic exercises for the production of a symmetrical moral nature as we have for the production of a symmetrical physique. Here is a field of work for those interested in juvenile reform. The time may come when the condition and growth of the mind and moral nature, as well as of the body, will be discoverable by scientific tests, and when the facts ascertained can be recorded in scientific language. Anthropological and psychological study of large numbers of delinquent children by qualified experts would doubtless reveal many interesting and important facts, and throw much light on the problems of juvenile reform. A complete and accurate diagnosis of the physical, mental, and moral diseases or weaknesses which bring children to our institutions is preliminary to the scientific treatment of those diseases. May it not

be reasonable to assume that the time will come when reformatories will partake somewhat of the nature of hospitals for the cure of moral disorders, a place in which experts will discover the remote and obscure causes of moral obliquity, and apply such scientific treatment as each individual case may require? The George Junior Republic is an interesting experiment in training dependent and delinquent children in morality, responsibility, and self-control by a practical application of certain well-known principles of intellectual and moral growth; and I believe it is not too early to say that this experiment has already proved successful, and that it is destined to exert a marked influence upon the management of the reformatory institutions of the future. In the early days of reformatories their management was chiefly empirical; but rational methods have taken their place, and ultimately the treatment of youthful criminals will probably be reduced to a strictly scientific basis.

While rejoicing in the wonderful progress of juvenile reform in the past and in its encouraging condition in the present, we must push on to the accomplishment of yet greater results in the future. The work is yet in its infancy. Its importance to the world and to the children themselves can scarcely be overestimated, and it demands our best thought and highest endeavor. The state owes a duty to these delinquent and criminal children. Every child has a natural right to such education, industrial training, and moral culture as will fit it for the duties of citizenship; and if, through the neglect or evil training of parents, a child becomes criminal, it is clearly the duty of the state, for its own good, for the protection of society, and for the welfare of the child himself, to place him in an environment and under a training specially adapted to secure his reformation and to prepare him for honest and intelligent citizenship. That the juvenile reformatories of the twentieth century will accomplish this result even more successfully than the schools of to-day there can be little doubt.

And, finally, let us ever remember that, if cure is good, prevention is better. If "reform" has been one of the watchwords of the nineteenth century, may "prevention" be the watchword of the twentieth century! Crime is largely the result of social errors and social injustice. Our civilization is producing criminals faster than reformatories can reform them. The increase of crime is one of the appalling facts of to-day. Our reformatory institutions are doing

grand work in reforming the individuals committed to them, but they can no more keep back the rising tide of crime than can bulrushes impede the progress of the Nile. We must discover the causes of pauperism, of insanity, and of crime, and so far as possible abolish them. The law of self-preservation demands it. Regard for the welfare of our nation and of the human race demands it. Justice demands it. These causes cannot be hidden so deep in obscurity as to forever evade the search-lights of scientific investigation. To discover these causes and, so far as possible, to remove them is the great problem of the new century. To the cry of poor, suffering, sinful humanity the National Conference of Charities and Correction will ever respond as to the bugle-call of duty; and, true to its glorious past, it will continue to lead in the onward march of Christian philanthropy. I have faith in God, faith in humanity, faith in the twentieth century; and I believe to-night, with a faith that equals conviction, that the philanthropy of the twentieth century will turn back the onsweeping tide of pauperism and crime, and make this beautiful world of ours a purer and brighter home for the children of men.

GIRLS' REFORMATORIES AND THEIR INHERENT CHARACTERISTICS.

BY WILLIAM G. FAIRBANK,

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In the United States the history of reformatories for girls extends over a period of but forty-six years, as the first such institution was established at Lancaster, Mass., in the year 1855.

This school was organized on the family plan, beginning, I believe, with three separate homes, capable of receiving thirty girls each, with a matron at the head of each home, but all under the supervision of a male superintendent. During recent years a female superintendent has been in charge.

It is an interesting fact that the first institution to which the late queen of England gave her name and support was a reformatory for

girls, which was established under the title of Victoria Asylum, by Miss Murray, first maid-of-honor to the queen.

Since 1855, the time when the school at Lancaster was instituted, girls' reformatories have been established very generally throughout the Union, save in a few Southern and Western states. Some of these have been organized in connection with boys' reformatories, each occupying separate departments in the same building; some in separate buildings, but on the same grounds, under one management. Others have been established as separate institutions, under separate management. The latter plan is now generally accepted as the better one, when reformatories for boys or girls are to be created; namely, that of placing them in different localities, as entirely distinct institutions.

We recognize the efficient work that is being accomplished in the different reformatories organized under each of these plans. All are saving a large percentage of those committed to their care to lives of virtue and usefulness. Each has its merits; and, under expert management and control, each can but accomplish good. But expert management is not always secured; and then, where both sexes are received in one building, there would be greater liability of undesirable complications. The mutual advantages existing where both sexes are received in separate buildings, properly located on the same grounds under one management, are most apparent; and the objections are more visionary than real. I speak from experience, having had charge of a school for some twelve years where both sexes were received, in separate buildings, on the same grounds. But the relative positions of the buildings were by no means ideal. First, a site should be secured having the requisite natural advantages. Then the buildings should be so located that the schools could be as distinctly separate one from the other as though they were a hundred miles apart. This is entirely possible. These suggestions are made for the consideration of those who have not as yet provided institutions for both sexes. A mere pronouncement against such a plan, on purely theoretical lines, or by those who have had experience with schools of one sex only, should have little weight; while the advantages, from a pecuniary point of view, are so apparent as not to need statement in this presence.

As a rule, it is true that girls' reformatories have not thus far received the marked consideration nor the pecuniary aid that has been

extended to reformatories for boys. They seem to have been considered by the public as of secondary importance. Almost without exception, reformatories for boys have been established in the different states long before an effort was made to care for the unfortunate, erring, homeless girls. And yet the girls, by and by, as mothers, are to make and educate the heart of the nation. Is there any such disparity between the numbers of unfortunate, erring girls, who need our best thought and care, and the boys who need the same, as exists between the number of each sex actually cared for in our reform and industrial schools in any state?

There are reformatories for girls as well as for boys, established on the congregate plan, that are doing excellent work. But it is generally conceded that the cottage, or family, plan is the more desirable, as it affords better opportunities to classify those received according to their age, mental attainments, or evil tendencies, and also for the reason that the number brought together in a single home, being much smaller, more nearly resembles the natural home, and more individual care and instruction can be given. In the United States the usual number received in a single home varies from twenty-five to forty. Some receive even a larger number. While a great and good work is being accomplished with such numbers, I seriously question whether in these latter days we have improved on the plans adopted by the Philanthropic Society of London and Wichern in Germany and Demetz in France. The London society in 1788 placed vicious and vagrant children, in families of twelve each, in modest cottages, devoid of costly ornamentation. In each cottage were placed a gardener, a tailor, and a shoemaker, with their wives; and the whole group was in the charge of a general superintendent. Wichern began his great work in 1833. He gathered in single cottages families of twelve each. Demetz established his wonderful school for juvenile delinquents in 1839, on the family plan, fifteen boys being received in each home. It is said that nearly all of them had committed criminal acts, but it is recorded that during a period of forty years 95 per cent. were saved.

A little later we find that Holland boasted of one of the model reformatories of Europe, where vagrant and vicious children were received in families of fifteen each; and the most extraordinary success was attained, as "not more than 2 per cent., according to the best evidence, ever became criminals." This, we can but believe,

was the true family plan; and the only item of expense that need be greater in such small families is the salaries paid to a necessarily increased number of instructors. But this would be money well expended, as far more individual advice, sympathy, and instruction can be given, and hence a larger number saved to good citizenship.

With reference to the industries that should be taught in our reformatories for girls the congress held in Stockholm in 1878 is quoted as saying, "The girls ought to receive in these establishments an education which shall prepare them, above all, for the care and management of a household." No wiser words could have been spoken, and to this end a good general education can be given by a judicious changing of the girls from one department to another. It is desirable, however, to supplement the knowledge thus gained by classes conducted by experts in the several departments of housewifery. There should be classes in cooking, dressmaking, laundry work without machinery, and nursing, at least. Training should also be given in physical culture and music, in social etiquette and general accomplishments. The art of making home attractive by simple, inexpensive ornamentation, tasteful arrangement, and the cultivation of flowers, should receive careful attention. A part of recreation time can be agreeably spent in acquiring a knowledge of fancy-work. We do not recommend educating our girls for or placing them in offices, shops, mills, stores, and like places. It may be said that, as in our reformatories for boys many trades are taught, so our girls should be taught telegraphy, typewriting, stenography, etc. While we do not depreciate teaching such things, we do not recommend that they be taught until a thorough knowledge of all that pertains to good housekeeping and home-making is acquired. If they are, we shall make the mistake that many parents in affluent circumstances have made, and in after years so much regretted. Our boys either choose for themselves, or, by advice, make selection of a given trade; and their time while in the school is devoted to acquiring a knowledge of it.

Their aim is to become proficient in that particular calling. This is as it should be, for to become a "jack at all trades" is to be good at none. But, in our schools for girls, every girl should be taught first of all the art of housekeeping and home-making. Add to this a good common-school education, with additional studies, if time permits, and we have given our girls an equipment for life fully equal to that given any individual boy in the trade-schools. They

are thus fitted to go from schools as helpers in some good home, the best and safest place for them. They are also fitted to become good home-makers, wives, mothers, or to go out as cooks, laundresses, dressmakers, seamstresses, book-keepers, and teachers. They may also acquire a knowledge of the culture of small fruits, vegetables, and flowers. Should a greenhouse or poultry plant be added, as is being done in some schools, further advantages could be given.

Among the many problems that are receiving earnest attention and study is the question of discipline. The first and last thought should be that discipline must be reformative. It is our work to establish or re-establish moral harmony in the soul. Hope is a more potent agent for good than fear, reward than punishment. As our girls develop in character, we must labor to impress them with the fact that they are largely in control of their own destiny. Self-interest must be awakened. They must early learn the lesson that personal interest is best subserved by personal effort. Such awakened interest will enforce a high order of discipline when any degree of severity of punishment would fail. In the words of another, "Brute force may make good prisoners: moral training alone will make good citizens. To the latter of these ends the living soul must be won: to the former, the inert body." Military discipline, good in its place, trains persons to act together: a true reformative discipline, to act separately. Virtue was never the product of force. By force we may repress individual character, and establish a machine-like discipline. In developing character, we must instil right principles that will find expression in individual action. Do not misunderstand me. I would emphasize the words of another: "Unsuitable indulgence is as pernicious as unsuitable severity. Stern and oftentimes severe training is necessary for reformation, but it must be benevolent in order to give birth to virtue."

We must studiously avoid all unnecessary humiliation or degradation in our administration of discipline or punishment. In subduing, we must not crush; and irritation should be avoided. If we would accomplish the greatest change for good in our girls, we must obtain the consent of their wills. If we would have them imbibe right principles and receive our instruction, we must secure the consent of their wills to our teachings, that they may choose what we choose for them. Without this sympathy, this agreement of choice between the

officers of our schools and the girls, little permanent good can be accomplished. How shall this be achieved? Simply by having in charge of our reformatories for girls such officers, and only such, from the superintendent to the lowest, as are thoroughly imbued with a hearty desire to accomplish the object for which such institutions are established, with a firm, abiding faith that it is entirely possible that these children of unfortunate birth or evil environment, neglected, deserted, or wilfully disobedient, may and can be saved to true, virtuous, noble womanhood,— persons whose hearts beat in sympathy with the great heart of the Master, whose spirits are touched with fire from the altar of self-sacrifice, whose love is a reflection of the divine, whose purpose, whose anxious solicitude, is to be a means of salvation to all who are placed in their charge.

I am aware that my answer will move some to ask, Where can such persons be found? But the question implies a tacit admission that either we are consciously lacking in these essential characteristics ourselves or that we believe that many of those occupying positions as teachers in our schools are thus deficient. Surely, here is the great cause of our weakness. While we delight to speak in words of unstinted praise of the many true and noble-hearted men and women now engaged in our different reformatories, whose influence for good is plainly evident now, and will live as a means of salvation to many when they shall have passed on, the fact remains that it is difficult to obtain persons qualified for the task of leading girls from wrong lives to right living, persons who possess the needed characteristics, stated by another as "entire self-devotion, calm and cautious judgment, great firmness of purpose, steadiness of action, a keen insight into the springs of human conduct," true, sympathetic, moral. As the need of such qualities in those who are to enter upon reformative work stands unquestioned, how good a thing it would be if a special education could be had by those who make choice of this work, such as is attainable for other great callings in life! Is not ours a profession exalted above most others, and worthy of a most careful, a divine preparation?

The corps of officers and instructors of any juvenile reformatory should be able to make and sustain the moral tone and public sentiment of the institution, and this should and can be accomplished largely by and through the inmates. The superintendent should lead in all this work; and, to attain the best results, he must lead. It

should never be true that the secular affairs of any such school, its general management, its finances, should ever be an excuse for any lack at this all-important point. He or she should be at all times in touch with whatever has to do with the discipline. Personal ease or preference should never lead to a delegation of this responsibility.

It has been said, "Work, education, and religion, the latter including moral instruction, are the three great forces to be employed in the reformation of the world"; and, of all the agencies for good, "religion is first in importance, because most powerful in its action upon the human heart and life." Accepting this proposition in the sense in which it is accepted by every sect and denomination of Christ's great Church Universal, our work in these Christian institutions of a Christian nation can be no less than to strive, through every channel of our influence, to lead our youth to Christ, without whose benediction we labor in vain.

We have in the girls, first, the home-making element of the future; second, the mothers in embryo; third, the character-builders of the coming generation; fourth, the latent power for good or evil, that will purify and save or seduce and ruin; fifth, the caterers of the people, and hence the promoters of health and happiness or of weakness, disease, and social discord. Is it, then, too much to say of every girl that is born in the state that she must be saved? Yet there are many more girls in every state who need restraint and proper moral and religious training, such as our institutions extend to them, than are so fortunate as to receive proper instruction and care.

We wait so often for definite proof of criminality when positive proof of manifest danger is not wanting. Generally speaking, the need is not so much for more and larger institutions as for organized, intelligent, tactful, Christian work to renovate the homes where the children are born. Some one has said, "The time to begin the work of saving some children is three or four generations before they are born." I am fully in sympathy with this sentiment; but, knowing that we have no control of the past, we look to the future, and are fully persuaded that every girl we save to true womanhood will prove a means of salvation to the generations to come.

In the words of another, "Every movement for the relief of society from the fearful burdens of vice and criminality has forced upon thoughtful minds the conviction that the only solution of the problem is to be found in the application of radical remedies in the

period of childhood." I would add early childhood. As surely as enlightened Christian effort is intelligently put forth, according to the measure of our privilege, opportunity, and responsibility, in child-saving work, so surely and in like measure will the numbers in our reformatories for girls, and boys as well, be reduced. This may not come in our day, but it is largely to be realized in the future. It is settled to-day that a state has a right to decree that every child within her borders shall be educated. It will sooner or later be as well settled that the state has the right and that it is her duty to require that every child, from its earliest moments of conscious existence, when first impressions can be made, shall be reared in an environment of virtue. Then every mother will receive the necessary help to teach, by example and precept, the principles of right living, or, if incapable or unwilling, she will be separated from her child, that it may receive from other hands what a mother cannot or will not bestow.

It is in their homes that our boys and girls should be saved to-day rather than in our reformatories and institutions of any kind whatever. Wherever this cannot be done, it is the duty of the state and society to interfere, and early take the children from such homes and place them under saving influences. Until child-saving work is done on a much larger scale than it is done to-day, our reformatories for juvenile delinquents will be crowded with inmates. 'Tis a blessed work to save the erring youth, but it is far better to save the child from erring.

THE MENTAL CAPACITY OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

BY FRANKLIN HORATIO NIBECKER,

SUPERINTENDENT OF HOUSE OF REFUGE, GLEN MILLS, PA.

Introspection in an individual is seldom to be encouraged. Every beautiful action is liable to be robbed of its virtue by hypercritical inspection and every noble impulse vitiated by destructive analysis. But the same rule does not apply to organized effort for the accomplishment of beneficent purposes. Such effort is necessarily based upon some theory formed from certain known facts. The effort can hence be only the result of deduction from the facts known, and should consequently be subject to continual correction from experience gained in the observation of the operation of the line of policy pursued.

Too much careful, exhaustive study of institutions of education cannot be made. To be of the greatest advantage, every separate and special line of inquiry should be made independently, so that the mind of the investigator shall not be led to lose sight of the end sought by following out general lines or pursuing some interesting side issue presented by the special individuals that may be brought before him. Furthermore, some standard should be established with which each subject can be compared, so that the results may be reduced to statistical and mathematical form, and the element of personal judgment eliminated as far as possible.

The whole line of treatment and the basis of judgment of the results of the treatment of pupils in schools for delinquent children depend upon what the pupil may be when he comes under the influence of the school. If, then, one wishes to reach some conclusion concerning the curriculum and efficiency of the school of letters in such an establishment, it is only natural to seek to learn as absolutely as possible the character and capacity of the minds of the pupils.

Of course, absolute results cannot be claimed in the ultimate conclusions of such an inquiry. Neither will it do to generalize too absolutely from such conclusions even for a single school, unless

the investigation is repeated at considerable intervals on exactly the same lines, with about the same number of pupils. Indeed, to have the conclusions reliable over a wide extent of territory, the work would almost necessarily have to be done in all the different institutions by the same person.

In spite of all such limitations as those admitted above, thorough work of this kind cannot but be useful to those who go to the heart of their work. If such data could be recorded from time to time, in the course of a few years some valuable results would no doubt be obtained.

The studies for the present consideration of "The Mental Capacity of Juvenile Delinquents" were made by private interviews with one hundred pupils who had been in the school at least one year. Those interviewed were taken consecutively in the order in which they were received into the institution, as it was thought with that number taken in that way a fair average would be struck. Besides the results obtained by conversation with the boy, the record of the boy's school standing when admitted and one year later, the visiting agent's report of his visit to the boy's home at the time of commitment and the recorded history of the boy made at the time of his commitment were all before the investigator, and assisted in reaching the conclusions in each case, which were recorded as arrived at.

The standard used in judging of mental capacity from educational work was the established grade work of the public schools of Philadelphia. And, as our school of letters is organized upon the same basis and under intelligent direction, by which it is kept abreast of the city schools in all methods and equipment, the pupil is expected to make progress equal to or greater than that which is required by the Philadelphia grades.

But even this absolute standard cannot be taken as a basis of judgment without some modification, because the maturity of the pupil's mind as compared with the degree of advancement of the work done must have some weight in determining whether the ground covered is a normal amount. A boy who has had few school advantages or has neglected them until he has reached the age of fourteen should cover more ground in a given time than a boy who would be naturally engaged upon the same work, though he were only nine.

The one hundred pupils whose cases are here considered came from large and small cities, towns, and country districts, so that all phases of social life and environment are represented.

The average age of the pupils was thirteen and three-tenths years; and so, if we consider school age as beginning at six years, the average attendance at school should be 7.3 years. The average attendance at school of each pupil, however, was found to be only 4.39 years, showing that each pupil had attended school practically three years less than would be necessary to place him in normal school standing. This would explain the lower grade of pupils in schools for delinquents, and would answer all criticisms upon the intelligence of delinquents as a class, if such criticisms depended upon the fact of backwardness in school for their sole basis.

When we come to consider the character of the attendance at school, whether it was reasonably regular or not, we find that, while the average number of years attended by each pupil was 60 per cent. of normal school time, 63 per cent. of the pupils who attended only 60 per cent. of the time that should be legitimately devoted to school attended very irregularly. Thus there would be a further very large reduction in the advance that could be legitimately expected of this 63 per cent. And, although the deductions were drawn from an entirely different set of entries and markings, it appears that exactly the same percentage — namely, 63 per cent.— of the boys had made very little or poor progress in their studies before coming to our school. Of the remaining 37 per cent., 21 per cent. had progressed only fairly, while 8 per cent. had made good progress, and 8 per cent. were illiterates and were not classed with the 63 per cent. of backward pupils, because, of course, their class should not be judged by the same standard as the preceding class.

The following figures show the percentages at the end of one year compared with those at its beginning: —

	Before entering.	*After one year in G. M. School.*
Number progressing well	8	41
" " fairly	21	24
" " badly	63	35
" of illiterates	8	0

These figures show that five times as many boys as had made

good progress before coming to our school made good progress in it. By this test, 41 per cent. of our pupils are of normal capacity, 24 per cent. of fair capacity, and 35 decidedly below normal.

It is interesting, also, to see in the similar form how the pupils passed from one class to another during the year: —

Number of illiterates who progressed well	3	
" " those classed as doing fairly, who progressed well	11	
" " " " " " badly, " " "	19	
" " " " " " well, " " "	8	41
" " illiterates who progressed fairly	1	
" " those classed as doing badly, who progressed fairly	13	
" " " " " " fairly, " " "	10	24
" " illiterates who progressed badly	4	
" " those classed as doing badly, who progressed badly	31	35
		100

But the educational test, or the ability to acquire a prescribed amount of knowledge of a given portion of certain school-books in a given time, is not a final or absolute test of mental capacity of any individual.

Mere scholastic standing is so far from a true gauge of mental capacity that further inquiry and testing was made by observation of the pupils' mental processes, the virility of impressions, and the appreciation of distinctions in value of ideas.

Following this basis of judgment, it was found that, while 38 were classed as normal instead of 41, only 29 of the number that had been classed as normal when judged by school work — namely, 41 — were now so classed, or about 72 per cent. But there had been added to the normal class from those who had done fairly 8 names, and 1 even from the class that had done badly, giving, as stated above, 38 per cent. of the whole number as normal as against 41 per cent. as deduced from school standing. The approximation of these two percentages would seem to indicate that, "errors and omissions excepted," the conclusions arrived at in both cases are practically the same so far as percentages are concerned, but differ in a considerable degree when individuals are concerned.

The interested student will at once desire to know how large an influence the boy's home life may have exerted upon his condition in permanently stunting or warping his mind. Of course, privation

in childhood with degrading surroundings or morally bad influences, when experienced by the very young and extending over a considerable part of the formative period of life, will eventually change the capacity and character of the mind. In order to bring some light upon the questions thus properly arising, the inquiry was extended to the character of the homes from which the pupils came, their seeming susceptibility to moral impulses and thoughts, any attempt or absence of attempt at home discipline, and the age at which habits of theft or the use of tobacco commenced. In this way, about as much ground as could be well covered in an investigation into the mental capacity, original and resultant, of the pupils was covered.

The first result noticeable was the fact that in 60 per cent. of the homes from which the boys came there was attempted discipline on the part of parents or guardians; and the percentage of homes in which there was no attempt to require proper conduct varied in almost a descending scale from the homes of the illiterates, 75 per cent. of which attempted no discipline, with a break in the class who had done only fairly in school, to the homes of those who had made good progress, 12½ per cent. of which attempted no discipline. These percentages are based upon the tables of attainments of the pupils when they entered the school.

When we come to consider the same data concerning the homes of the pupils in connection with the classification of the pupils after one year's work in our school under supposedly proper discipline, just the results that would be expected are brought to light. While the standard of performance has been raised along the line by diminishing the number of the three lower classes, the proportion in each grade from homes where there was no discipline attempted has increased, excepting in the lower grade, which was composed of illiterates, and so disappears. The 12½ per cent. of those doing well from homes without discipline has arisen to 29 per cent., and the 43 per cent. of those doing fairly from the same class of homes has arisen to 54 per cent. And, as the improvement in the higher grades has been made more largely from recruits from the lowest grade, that grade still shows a greater percentage from the undisciplined homes. From 38 per cent. at the time of admission it rises to 43 per cent.

A complete analysis of these figures would be too long and deal too exclusively with tabular work to be in place in a paper like

this, but the work may be summarized in this way, of the 60 pupils who came from homes where there was an attempt at proper government, 36 per cent. advanced into the highest grade; and, of the 40 pupils who came from homes without parental restraint, only 37½ per cent. advanced to the highest standing. I say only, because one would naturally expect that children who were entirely undisciplined, provided their mental capacity had not been affected by lack of restraint and individualism in conduct, would respond in larger proportional numbers to proper conditions and wisely directed effort. Thus we come upon the first really tangible indication that is worthy of further careful investigation; namely, that the early life of the child not only retards the development of the child and loses the time wasted, but also permanently injures his capacity for effort. Perhaps, if the record were again made, after more time had been given for proper conditions to have their influence, a greater percentage of recoveries would be recorded. To see whether the character of the homes as divided into two classes — namely, comfortable and degraded or bad — will show similar results, the necessary computations were made. Of the 72 pupils who came from comfortable homes, 37½ per cent. advanced to the highest class during the year. Of the 38 pupils coming from homes classed as degraded or bad, 28 per cent. advanced to the highest class. This shows emphatically, in connection with the previous figures, the permanent effect upon the child's mind of home conditions, and seems to indicate that bad physical and moral conditions are more detrimental than lack of government in the family.

It might be well to state that, of the homes that are classed as comfortable, 3 are also classed as degraded and 8 as bad. There remains still one cross-comparison that might have some bearing on the subject. Any judgment concerning character, except from action, is liable to be very faulty. The judgment of character is a rather arbitrary designation, intended to indicate ability to make moral distinction and the degree of susceptibility to moral impression. This last comparison is between the character of the subjects' moral sensitiveness and the kind of homes from which they came. Of those who seemed to be absolutely devoid of moral sensitiveness, or, as some would call them, moral idiots, although I think the term too strong for these cases, 4 were from comfortable homes, 1 from a degraded and 1 from a bad home. Of the 56 who seemed reasonably susceptible, 40 were

from comfortable homes, and 6 from degraded and 10 from bad homes. Of the 47 who seemed only slightly sensitive to moral impressions, 30 were from comfortable homes, 6 from degraded, and 11 from bad homes.

This analysis brings out the fact that practically the same percentage of pupils as did well in our school, and were classed as normal, were sensitive to moral impressions and came from comfortable homes, and is likewise quite close to the result of the mental examination made without reference to the progress made in school.

If we take the number of those susceptible to moral impressions who came from comfortable homes — namely, 40 — as the central term, we have only to rise one to reach the number of normals as determined by educational test, and to drop two to reach the number of normals as determined by independent examination apart from school work.

I have the highest reverence for conscientiousness in all such investigations. All of the different lines taken to find, if possible, some more clear view of this important and certainly very interesting *terra incognita* were independently followed, and no collation or tabulation of the data attempted until the field notes were all made. Consequently, there is a certain satisfaction in finding such close approaches to verification of the result of one set of operations by the result of other sets of operations entirely independent.

No reference has been made to the data collected concerning the age at which theft commenced or at which the use of tobacco was begun, as no connection has been discovered in this investigation between these habits and the mental capacity of the pupils.

EXPANSION AS APPLIED TO REFORMATORIES FOR JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

BY C. D. HILLES,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE BOYS' INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, LANCASTER, OHIO.

We are assembled in annual session in the shadow of the great dome beneath which, for many months, there has been a spirited discussion of the moral and legal phases of the proposed extension of our national boundary lines.

This agitation recalled the circumstances of our modest beginnings as a nation, enforced a review of our development and progress, and refreshed our memories as to the methods by which territory had been acquired and the extent of our accretions.

It is a fit place and an opportune time, therefore, to grow retrospective, to canvass present conditions, and consider the propriety of enlarging the scope of our work and the sphere of our usefulness.

Less than a half-century ago Ohio resolved upon an ambitious experiment with a view to rescuing children from evil courses likely to be embraced or upon which they had already embarked. Other states had houses of detention or refuge, but they were not hopeful institutions. It was not then an accepted principle of social economy that "expenditure incurred in the restraint of youth is less costly than the punishment of calloused crime." A philanthropic Buckeye governor adopted the recommendation of a commission of his creation in 1858, and the "Reform Farm" at Lancaster was the immediate result. At the very outset, bars were banished and enclosures eliminated. The authors of the legislative act were probably unaware of the singular excellence and nobility of their work. It was a praiseworthy example, and worked a revolution in the reformatory world in an incredibly short space of time. In some quarters it was looked upon as the undertaking of visionaries. There were conservatives, like those of whom Douglas Jerrold was fond of telling, who had no respect for the new moon out of regard for that respectable institution, the old moon.

But the system had a legitimate basis and sure warrant. It had proven that, if the possible criminal were removed from evil associa-

tions while still amenable to better influences, the trend of his life would be changed. It is a part of human nature to rebel against restraint. With bars banished and enclosures eliminated, a boy is surrounded with the firm but sympathetic influences, the substitute for parental interest, counsel, and restraint, that lead to high ideals, and is no longer sacrificed to prison environment, treatment, and forebodings.

Ohio's good example was quickly imitated by the newer states; but the older commonwealths were slow in appropriating the idea, mainly because they had already established plants, at great expense, that could not well be transformed or abandoned. The system advanced and grew more enlightened as its utility and practicality were proven. The crudities disappeared, and the public recognized that the gravitation was in an ideal direction; namely, protection to society from minor depredations by thoughtless and abandoned youth in such manner as to accustom the offenders to habits of industry and enforce labor upon those who would prefer to indulge their indolence, to preserve and amend their health, to accustom them to study, cleanliness, and serious reflection, and to teach them both the principle and practice of moral responsibilities. One of Paul's parting counsels to Timothy was, "Be gentle unto all, apt to teach, patient, in meekness instructing those that oppose themselves." It was upon this foundation that the reformatory superstructure was erected. These schools, established in the ruthless days when the lash was in perpetual motion, have checked the causes for corporal punishment, and have had a salutary effect in reducing the amount of juvenile and adult crime. Within recent years, almost all the states that originally withheld approval have changed front, believing that the system, assimilated to that now in force in Ohio, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Indiana, and many other states, possesses transcendent merit. It seeks reformation rather than restitution, deals with cause rather than effect; for the "administration of charity is no longer a question of economizing by refusing to buy an axe with which to cut at the root of crime," and not a question of boarding and lodging at a minimum cost. With the passing of the old system the cellular institution will disappear.

The discipline of to-day is almost invisible, being materially aided by a military arm with its accompaniments. Military movements socialize action. Corporal punishment is never a pleasant diversion;

but, if duty calls for its infliction, it is administered in the spirit of love and fidelity,— first, to secure the attention and respect of the offending party, and then to teach the necessity of order, organization, and law. Here the utmost diversity of practice obtains. On the subject of flagellation Superintendent Chapin says: "Corporal punishment is abolished so far as cottage discipline is concerned. The principal of school grades is permitted to send recalcitrants to the superintendent for chastisement. A stone-breaking gang is an efficient substitute for whipping." Mr. Sage uses the squad line, and extends the period of detention. Mr. Allison, as far as possible, has "substituted the Golden Rule, properly instilled into the hearts of officers and children." Mr. Westendorf observes: "Corporal punishment is not a daily necessity. A constant resort to it is the best evidence in the world of poor discipline. Any disposition to abolish it raises the question at once with the boy, 'What are you going to do about it?'" In his judgment the superintendent should be the prime factor in matters of discipline. In Ohio we extend the period of detention by demeriting, deprive boys of play, and, as a last resort, use the rod.

At the close of the century there remained in the reformatories and houses of refuge in the country, exclusive of those in the District of Columbia and Utah, from which data were not obtained, 11,980 boys; and from the same institutions, Nebraska excepted, 156,006 boys have gone forth. The average annual cost per capita in thirty-one institutions, Nebraska included, but Iowa excepted, was $158.55. In almost all the states, boys are committed on indeterminate sentences, and can be released for probationary periods. The average term of detention is 23.6 months. The standing of boys in twenty-four of the institutions is ascertained at a given time by means of the badge or merit system. Two, one of these the Howard School in Rhode Island, use a banking system; but the basic principle is identical with that of the merit system. Eight or ten superintendents, prominent among the number being Mr. St. John, of Michigan, depend upon memory, judgment, and constant personal contact with each boy in forming an estimate of character, conduct, and capacity to succeed, if released. In Ohio we debit a boy with demerits when he enters the school, the minimum assessment being 5,000 and the maximum 8,000. For each day of exemplary deportment and satisfactory work in school he receives a credit of ten, with such addi-

tional reward for consecutive weeks of good behavior as will make it possible to cancel the minimum debit in twelve months. The ward system gives a judicious stimulus to the highest effort. With either system, however, a boy has it in his power to earn a remission. He can shorten the days of detention by good deportment, industry, and progress.

Josiah Flynt has quite recently given us a series of scientific studies in scarlet, through the medium of a popular monthly magazine, in which he employs composite criminal characters. A faithful composite of modern and model reformatory institutions, appropriating the praiseworthy features of the leading schools, would disclose a large farm located some distance from the distractions of city life, so that the footfall of commerce will ever be an incongruous thing, and that the school may be beyond the reach of local and accidental partialities. It presents streets and pavements; a brick subway for circulating steam and water and distributing electric current; trunk and lateral sewers, feeding a disposal works; modest cottages, each designed to accommodate from thirty to seventy inmates; a pumping plant, power and light generating plant; central school building containing amusement hall, chapel, and library; a congregate dining hall for inmates, adjoining one for officers, with high ceilings and good ventilation, and used exclusively for the storage, preparation, and consumption of food, so that school-rooms and bedrooms will not be "haunted by the delayed aroma of a thousand dinners"; a hospital, greenhouse, horse-barn, dairy-barn, and slaughter-house; and two trades buildings, one for the essentials and the other for technical training, for habits of subordination are inculcated simultaneously with those of industry, and all advanced institutions pursue the trades and industries which are incidental to their wants and minister to the needs of communities in general. While the boy is yet malleable, he is taught to labor honestly with his hands, and is thus provided with the means of earning a living. Reasonable individual inclination is taken into consideration in assigning him to a department, so that as far as possible he may follow the bent of his genius, widen his knowledge of and earn experience in his craft.

The essentials are tailoring, baking, carpentry, plumbing, shoemaking, steam laundering, painting, glazing, and blacksmithing. In such employments not only will the boys learn the respective trades and develop habits of industry, but supply the school with clothing,

bread, and cakes, make all linen immaculate, and do necessary blacksmithing, painting, and kindred work. In the technical training building will be found a printing department, in which boys may become expert compositors and pressmen, and from which a creditable periodical is issued, a wood-engraving adjunct, a school of mechanical and electrical engineering, a sloyd school, a class in phonography, and a school of telegraphy. In addition, agriculture, horticulture, floriculture, gardening, and brick-making have attention; and the attractive outdoor occupation they afford is an excellent tonic for frail bodies and shattered nerves.

The schools in the composite institution will be found in charge of competent instructors, regularly licensed to teach. Regular promotions occur; modern text-books, containing the best, purest, and most patriotic thought of the age, are used; periodical examinations are conducted; and, in short, in point of efficiency the curriculum and work are not inferior to those in the common schools of the state. In the system of compulsory elementary education, moral and religious instruction is prominent.

The cottage or segregate system has the unqualified and enthusiastic indorsement of all the superintendents who responded to my request for an expression, except those in charge of houses of refuge in New York, Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis. In the ideal cottage the basement contains an area for recreation purposes, a lavatory, lumber-room, bath-room, and quarters for heating and ventilating apparatus. This apparatus will consist of a fan driven by an electric motor, the current and steam being transported from the central station. The continuous wave of hot air from this apparatus will be infused into rooms through registers placed near the ceiling, and the impure air will escape through gratings near the floor, sanitary science having reversed itself and the position of the registers simultaneously. On the floor above the basement the care-takers and teachers have a comfortable suite, and the boys have a commodious, well-lighted, and well-ventilated room for school purposes or as a reading and writing retreat. Above are the dormitories and disrobing-rooms. The basement communicates with the floor above by a fire-proof tower, rendering a fire-escape unnecessary.

While the reformatory system has marched onward, the evolution is not ended. In my judgment, it is essential to carry the classification of boys to the last analysis. We minimize contamination

by segregating the worst criminals. Conditions will be improved in proportion by bunching boys of the same color, educational advancement, and grade of offence. This may seem Utopian, but it is not so difficult of approach in institutions having 800 inmates assigned to 20 cottages of 40 each.

We should gather full and faithful statistics as to the antecedents of inmates, maintain an effective supervision over those in a state of conditional release, and preserve a record of all who have come to man's estate.

The best thought should be crystallized into rules regulating discipline and determining dietaries, for poor nutrition is largely accountable for youthful ill-conduct. The more scientific the dietary, the more excellent the physical condition. Indeed, earnest friends of cooking-schools hold poorly prepared food responsible for physical degeneration, and physical degeneration is accountable for much crime.

It is highly important to have officers who possess capacity, energy, and the equipment of experience. Reform-school work is becoming a profession. A standard of efficiency by which officers and employees can be measured is one of the necessities. Salaries should be liberal, and the officers should be treated with candor and justice. Nothing less fair than justice can keep them in good temper. Justice satisfies everybody, and justice alone. Young men and young women should be encouraged to adopt the work by making the field attractive and inviting from the standpoint of advancement, remuneration, and undisturbed tenure, even to the establishment of a retired list. If the retired list is practicable in the military and naval service, and with successful railroads and other business enterprises, it is worthy of adoption by state institutions.

I believe that those engaged in reformatory work should devote thought and research to a cognate subject,—that of devising effective means for guarding against the propagation of criminals. This is not a new thought. England and Russia tried it and failed, but it is for us to discuss. If we do not, who will? The thought was brought to me by history, was nurtured by my earliest association with this work, and has developed with my experience. While the reform schools have returned to society 128,000 boys whose careers have been creditable and useful, the superintendents estimate they

have sent out 28,000 who have relapsed into crime, and deliberately indulged in vice and violence as a profession. Some have known all the excesses of unbridled depravity. The relapse may have resulted from incomplete development, defective bodily organisms, untoward environment, or the subjects were congenital criminals. But, if society was unskilled in effecting thorough development, unskilled in the removal of functional incapacity, or unequal to the improvement of surroundings in the communities, and totally unable, by any known process of law, to prevent the utterly depraved from producing their kind, then society was not justified in lifting the quarantine. It should have provided a place of permanent custody for those who could never safely be returned to liberty.

After providing humane quarters, opportunities for mechanical, mental, and moral development, and securing employment for a boy, and giving him every possible assistance, the state can still afford to rush to his rescue if he falls twice or thrice; but there should be a limit to liberality, for the state must protect the boy with whom he comes in contact and will probably contaminate. It must, too, prevent perpetuation of the species, else that which is evil will repeat itself. Rev. R. A. White has discovered that, out of 709 descendants of a criminally inclined ancestry, 163 were beggars, 181 dissolute women, 106 illegitimate, and 76 were convicted criminals: among these were 7 murderers. Five hundred and ninety-six out of the total 709 were tainted with inherited criminality, which they found it more or less difficult or, perhaps, impossible to resist. Society took no account of the sad hereditary influences for which none of these unfortunates were really responsible, but, Mr. White complains, permitted these people to marry and intermarry with their kind, and therefore could not be surprised at their stocking the earth with dissolute men and women.

I am strongly of the belief that one satisfactory step toward stemming this tide would be to permanently retire the recidivist. A custodial farm could be provided for such criminals as are known to be incurable. The place should be punitive and self-supporting, and none should be transferred to the colony until all other methods of treatment fail. The inmates could be in a state of semi-freedom, though the custody should be closer than in a reformatory. The colonists could enjoy a pastoral life, without temptations and contaminating influences. Commitments could be conducted under proper

safeguards. The discretionary power of superintendents is already wide, it being possible to detain an eight-year-old boy until he becomes twenty-one. If such officials can safely be trusted with the liberty of lads, no difficulty need be anticipated in securing fair and just exercise of similar discretionary powers with people of older growth. Unrestrained and unjustifiable exercise of power to imprison would not linger long in a land where personal liberty is so prized.

It is true that colonies have been unsuccessful in Siberia, Corsica, and New South Wales, but largely through faultiness of internal management; and the Australian colonies failed because they meant wholesale, wide-spread pollution.

Facilities could be speedily and cheaply improvised in Ohio for carrying out this phase of penological experiment; and I believe they should be, to the end that "no one should be left free to commit acts inimical to himself or others, when we have had sufficient warning and know that they will be repeated." The individuals interested and possibly a few sentimentalists would cry out against this or any scheme of "benevolent extermination of degenerates"; but if it is known and shown that one is beyond hope of reformation or control, and is only a leaven of evil in the world, no philanthropist should engage in lamentations over the alleged injustice of forcibly detaining him during life. Society cannot otherwise insulate itself against the current of vileness. Callous criminals breeding criminals is a condition upon which good men must not look with complacency. The supreme duty of the state is to protect its manhood, womanhood, and property; and, when we find a degenerate who is distributing vicious virus, he should be made to understand that he has turned the key that has shut him out from the world, that liberty is dead, and he is the homicide.

THE REFORM-SCHOOL OFFICER:

What He should Be, and How to Get and Keep Him.

BY IRA OTTERSON,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE STATE HOME FOR BOYS, JAMESBURG, N.J.

In speaking of a reform-school officer, we do not refer to any special position, but to the whole line, from directors or trustees through superintendents, down the whole roster.

As to directors, managers, or trustees, they should be appointed not to pay a political debt or as a favor from the appointing power, but in recognition of peculiar fitness. They should be men having had experience in life, with a broad knowledge of men and affairs, having a desire to benefit and uplift those coming under their charge, and to help them to become good, law-abiding, self-supporting citizens.

All boards should be free from politics,— not that the members should have no politics, for pure politics is patriotism; but political preference should have no weight in the management of a school. That only should be considered which is for the highest good of the pupils.

Having found a board of managers, it is for them to select a superintendent. If politics, or preferment other than for fitness, should not be considered in the selection of the managers, it certainly should not under any consideration be given place in the selection of a superintendent.

The superintendent should be a specialist in all lines of business, for each special qualification necessary to make a success in any one of a dozen or more other lines of business should be combined in the person of a superintendent. He should be capable as an organizer and a thorough disciplinarian. He should be a good judge of character, interested in each one with whom he comes in contact,— one to whom all under his charge, large and small, may go as a friend, and feel they may give their confidence and get sympathy or advice; for he must be the head and the father of the whole.

In the workshop or on the farm he must be at home, able not only, by presence and advice, to give encouragement, but, if occasion requires, to take hold with his own hands and work, thus elevating the

labor, and giving the pupils to understand that there is dignity in labor and that all labor is honorable.

In the school studies he should show a lively interest, thereby encouraging not only the pupils, but the teachers.

By showing an interest in the sports of the pupils, he may not only increase their esteem for himself, but at the same time guide the sports in lines that are manly, healthful, and pure.

Last, but by no means least, a superintendent having the care of children should be an earnest, active, every-day Christian. Merely Sabbath Day or chapel Christianity will not do. Fraud in this matter will not pass for the genuine article with the class of pupils found in reform schools.

When the board has chosen a superintendent, they should give him their fullest confidence, and invest him with unlimited authority as to the selection, appointing, disciplining, and dismissing his coworkers or helpers. In this his hands should be entirely untrammelled. He should be held accountable only for results; and this can only justly be done when he is at liberty to surround himself with a corps of workers of his own selection, who are accountable to the superintendent alone.

The Family Head.— This, as God set the example at the creation, should be male and female; and the twain should be one,— husband and wife. While it is not always possible, when needed, to find a married couple possessing all the qualifications desirable to make them the proper heads for a family, as a general rule we can come more nearly to doing so in a married couple than we can even hope to do by matching single persons to become for the time father and mother to those placed in their care.

The qualifications necessary to make a good family officer may vary according to the character of the individual school, but we believe it is always best for a man to have had experience in some other line of business previous to his beginning in reform-school work. In other words, we believe contact with men in other lines of business and knowledge of men is helpful in aiding him to understand the children whose reformation he is to labor for.

In the general plan of making our family officer an instructor in some branch, it is necessary that he should be an expert in the particular branch in which he is to instruct. He must not only know how to do the particular work, but he must be an enthusiast in that partic-

ular line. He must be able to talk of it, to explain it in every detail, to illustrate with pencil or tool, as the case may need, to tell the why and wherefore of each step of the work. He should be able to fire each pupil with the desire to excel not only each member of the class, but to equal, if not excel, his instructor. Such an instructor will have no need to urge his boys forward.

If the instructor is to work a force on the farm, he must be a lover of nature, quick to note and make use of the changes in growth and appearance of each plant, point out the difference in character of seeds, manner of planting, needs as to soil and cultivation, the time of harvesting, sections of country where mostly grown, and use to which applied when harvested.

There should be no end to the amount of instruction given under such circumstances, for there is no limit to the possibilities. But let me warn the officer who would make a success of teaching a farm force that, if he expects to make a success while carrying an umbrella to keep the sun off him, and seeking the shade for himself while he shouts to his boys, "Get along there," he will fail. He must go among them, and, by a stroke here, calling attention there, and a "come along, boys," must show himself not only master, but leader of the work.

With the family in the assembly room or on the playground, there is special need for an officer to get near the boys' hearts. By showing an interest in and directing their sports, he can not only prevent much evil that might arise from want of other occupation, but by healthy exercise develop their physical systems and make a better foundation for their moral reformation. He should learn to know the individual traits of each boy under his care,— not only know his ambitions, but also what have been his disappointments, and endeavor in all things to win his confidence and have his pupil look to him as his friend and counsellor.

While active in all these points, he should ever be alert as to what may be going on among his pupils, and try to discourage and prevent their relating to each other former experiences, and lead to better thoughts.

In discipline he should be conscientious to obey every order of those in authority, then to exact prompt and perfect obedience from those in his care. His word should be understood to be law which may never be evaded or disregarded, yet he should be careful never

to say "don't" unless necessary. He should be zealous for the reputation of his boys, and make them feel that his interest in them will not end when they leave his care.

It would hardly seem necessary to add that with these qualifications should be those of an earnest Christian. It would seem that one possessed of these qualities, who engages in the work to help uplift others, and not merely as an employment by which to earn a living, could not be other than a Christian.

We have only referred to male employees thus far. Our experience has been wholly in work for boys, yet we would not for one moment claim or have it understood that woman has not had as much to do with the success of our work as has man.

As in Eden it was not good for man to be alone, as in the family there must be father and mother, so in a school or home for the reformation of boys should there be both women and men working together for the moral uplifting and reformation of the boys. We believe the influence of pure, Christian, motherly women in reform schools to be stronger and deeper in true reformation of the inmates than that of men, and that the combined efforts of men and women have a much stronger and better influence than that of either alone.

We have always been impressed with an incident which came to our notice in a reform school for boys, in which the practice of having women as aids to reformation was deemed unnecessary. The wife of the superintendent was in no way connected with the school, but spent much time in it, and became endeared to the boys. One of the boys was asked, "What does Mrs. Blank do in the school,— what is she there for?" The boy, hesitating a moment that he should be asked to defend her presence, out of the fulness of his heart spoke volumes when he said, "Oh, she binds up our fingers when we get hurt, and — and tells us when our mothers *die*."

The true woman not only binds up the sore fingers, but, so far as it is possible for human beings to do, takes the place of the divine Master in binding up the broken-hearted.

In every department and part of reform-school work the successful worker must have special adaptability; and, while experience in other lines of work is helpful in fitting one to be successful, yet the real training necessary cannot be found in any other place or by any other method than in the practical work of the school itself.

The duties of a reform-school worker are confining, absorbing, and

unceasing. The very air one breathes partakes of care and responsibility. The period of life when one can be a successful worker must, because of its unceasing care, be the very best of a man's or woman's life. Only healthy people can stand it. If too young, the lack of experience; if too old, the want of adaptability,— will hamper and disqualify. The period of greatest usefulness will not extend over many years in the average worker; and, when no longer capable of performing the duties required, what door of business is there which he can enter?

Having considered the qualifications, the necessary duties required, the limited period of service, owing to the exacting nature of the work, how are we to secure the best service, and, having secured it, retain it?

In engaging new employees, only those with the highest attainments and greatest number of qualifications should be considered, and should be employed only on trial. At first it should be in a subordinate position. The probationer should be advanced if found competent, or promptly dropped if not found up to the standard. Promotion from a lower to higher position is always desirable when practicable; and, where this is practised, a stimulus for the best service is given. Step by step along the way an employee should be advanced in the line of compensation as well as in position. If there be no opportunity to advance in position, for faithful, competent service an advance in compensation should be given.

To be an A1 reform-school officer, one must be a specialist; and, as such, the compensation should be that of a specialist, not of one in an ordinary occupation.

Salaries paid in reform schools generally do not permit workers when worn out in the service to retire with a comfortable living assured.

Our general government, in its dealings with those who fight to subdue its avowed foes, grants pensions for life with honorable retirement after a prescribed age or for disability. Reform-school workers give the best of their life to overcome those who are likely to become the foes to all that is good in our country. Make their positions, therefore, positions of honor, and their compensation such as similar ability, application, and energy would command if directed in other lines of work. If this were done, it would not so often happen that, when workers become most valuable to the cause, they leave it for business requiring less care and giving greater pecuniary reward.

ALCOHOLISM AS A CAUSE OF DEGENERACY.

BY MRS. OPHELIA L. AMIGH, GENEVA, ILL.

When our chairman, Mr. Wentworth, asked me to write a paper for this meeting, he suggested that it be short; and I quite agreed with him that it should be short, but calculated to provoke discussion. Just then, as well as on many other occasions, I had been talking with some of our girls who were clear cases of degeneracy; and, upon inquiry, I found that in every case one parent or both were confirmed drunkards. The children of such parents we find weak of will, prone to do wrong, and devoid of moral perception. I firmly believe that, if alcohol as a beverage could be entirely and completely driven from our land, more would be done for the upbuilding of the human race than by any other means. If a murder is committed, in nine cases out of ten alcohol is the cause, either directly or indirectly. The saloons foster all that is wrong, and the children of drunken parents grow up to keep the saloons in a flourishing condition. One has to sit but one day in the juvenile court of Chicago to realize what it is that fills all kinds of institutions in Illinois, as well as the other states. The influence of the saloon is far-reaching, and it seems to have taken such foothold that even good people hesitate to take a firm stand against it. If we desire to raise fine stock, we would never think of keeping the sires or dams drunk all or half of the time; yet nearly all of the children who come to us are raised under just such conditions. At a meeting of the New York Academy of Medicine, Dr. Charles L. Dana spoke of having studied carefully 350 cases of alcoholism at Bellevue Hospital; and of this number over two-thirds had commenced drinking before the age of twenty, and all before thirty years of age. Of the 24,300 patients in Bellevue Hospital last year, Dr. Alexander Lambert reported that one-fourth of them went through the alcoholic ward, among them many who had taken the various "cures."

Dr. Peabody called attention to ignorance of the effects of alcohol as a cause of extreme cases of alcoholism even among people who were intelligent on other matters. They think that, so long as one does not get actually drunk, there is no harm in drinking. Ladies, he says, will often take sherry wine, forgetting that it contains from 30 to 45 per cent. of alcohol. Of the misery, degradation, and pau-

perism produced by the use of alcohol as a beverage I have neither time nor inclination to write at this time. You, as well as I, have witnessed this in all its forms; but of the children of drunken parents I do wish to speak, and to hear this matter thoroughly discussed. I find in one of our inmates an especially violent temper, and that her temper becomes aroused on the slightest provocation or for no cause at all. The brain seems slow to act, and the mind at times vacant. Upon investigation, I find that the mother drank quite hard before this child was born. There are two girls in the family, neither of them normal. In the case of another, who is feeble-minded, I find that both parents were drunk nearly all of the time; and out of a large family of children there was not one who was not either crippled, feeble-minded, or in some manner not a normal child. We had another girl who was made feeble-minded by being struck on the head by a drunken father. I might take much more time, and cite many more cases. We should let no Conference go by without doing something against this giant evil. In looking over the Proceedings of the different Conferences, I can find but little, comparatively speaking, that has a direct bearing on the liquor question and its curse to humanity. All kinds of crimes follow in its wake; and something must be done, or we shall become worse than a nation of lepers. The immoral phase of the question, the terrible haunts where the young are lured to their disgrace and ruin through the drink that maddens the brain and renders them unable to judge between right and wrong,— all has a tendency downward. Many a girl has told me that, had it not been for the wine-room in the first place, she would never have been in the state home. We had one girl brought to us, not quite fourteen years of age, who had delirium tremens; and we barely saved her life. She had drunk more or less since she was ten years of age. What can we say for the brute in man's form who would either give or sell intoxicants to a child like that? Let us, then, raise heart and hand against this destroyer, which not only destroys the man and woman, boy and girl, but lays its blighting curse upon the unborn child. The following advice might well be written where all may read and perhaps some profit by: —

"Stay, mortal, stay! Nor, heedless, thus thy sure destruction seal;
For in the cup there lurks a curse which all who drink must feel.
Disease and Death, forever nigh, stand ready at the door,
And, anxious, wait to hear the cry, 'Oh, give me one glass more!'"

XI.

Needy Families in their Homes.

INTRODUCTION.

BY ZILPHA D. SMITH,

GENERAL SECRETARY ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, BOSTON.

The title of our section, "Needy Families in their Homes," emphasizes that we would build up and that we would destroy. We would destroy the need: we would help to build up true family life in real homes.

Our subject is a very large one,— so large that it touches everybody. I suppose there is not a person in this room who does not know at least one needy family,— perhaps one near in affection or in kindred; while others here make each week the acquaintance of two or three needy families in such distress that it must be made known to strangers.

We would destroy the need,— relieve it for to-day and prevent it for to-morrow. I believe no man is really content to give relief for the moment, and stop there. He may hope the family itself will find a better way out of their difficulties, or wish he could help them to find it and silently lament his lack of leisure or resource. Gladly would any one of us help people in need to that ability and opportunity which shall bring independence in return for service the world needs and will pay for. Some of us soon lose heart. Because our ingenuity does not immediately suggest a solution of the family's problem, we hastily conclude there is none. Here, as in other things, faith may remove mountains; and there are many present here to-night whose lives are testimony that by adding to their faith patience and hard work the way out of what seemed insuperable difficulties may be found.

Some of the darkest problems that meet us are in homes overshadowed by the blight of feeble-mindedness or epilepsy, by insanity, by crime or the beginnings of crime. We are deeply indebted to those whose work with these unfortunates is represented in other sections of this Conference, and to these yearly conferences also for teaching us the ideals of the specialists, their methods, the results in happiness, in cure, in reform, and their suggestions for prevention.

We who know families whose difficulties are due solely to the misfortune or ill-doing of one member, need this knowledge. We must persuade reluctant parents. They know nothing of what has been accomplished nor how to take advantage of the means our states provide for the care and training of persons defective in mind or body or for the education and reform of wayward youth. We can help them to take a long look ahead to the time when their son may be restored to his family a new creature, or, if the best means to this end fail, to concur in the long custody which alone protects the children of the future from being badly born.

Now and then one of us has an opportunity in this way to check the growth of those degenerate families, all of whose children are badly born. Small though their number is, they appear in every community, and should not be ignored.

Again, for the sake of one child whom we know, we may help many others, by persuading the state to establish a colony for defectives or the school board to provide a special class for backward children.

I have been talking of two small groups, the defectives and the criminals. There is another much larger group, in which we have still to learn to be our own specialists,— the broken or imperfect families. They number nearly half of the families dealt with by a general charitable society, and are of many kinds. There is the aged couple whose children are dead or scattered; the lonely man or woman, widowed or single; the widow, struggling with the double duty of making a living for her flock and keeping the home for them, helped in her struggle by half-grown children; and seven or eight out of every hundred are widows or deserted wives, each with two or more children, none of whom are old enough to earn.

For the aged and the lonely, one feels that the work of prevention should have been done years ago, so many of them are deserted fathers or mothers. The duties of parents to little children are

more and more enforced by law. The duties of grown children to their parents are recognized by law, but rarely enforced by it; and too often these duties are forgotten and grown away from, as marriage or removal gradually separate the parent family and build up new ones. Something can be done, however, to restore family ties; and each time we help in this we are strengthening in the community the instinct of protection and support toward mothers and fathers and between brothers and sisters, which is there, and which must be our chief reliance against other aged and disabled persons falling into need.

As to women bereft of the natural bread-winner for their children, how can we hope to keep here a proper family life in a real home? Our instinct is to keep the broken family together; and, if the woman be strong of character and skilled of hand, she can bring the children through all their poverty and privations stronger and wiser for the struggle. If she lack the strength of character or the skill, she will need from her family or her friends, of whom we may make ourselves one, continued moral support. Subtle dangers to the character of her boys and girls lie in the relief she must receive and in her necessary absences from home to earn in her husband's stead. With a weak and untrained woman, even though a good and loving one, the seemingly cruel course of caring for her children apart from her may be the kindest,— looking forward always to their living together again when strength and skill are gained.

With the deserted wife there may be hope of restoring the wholeness of the family. In the East and in the West, we feel the need of reaching more effectively than is possible under present laws, the man who wilfully neglects his own. The best remedy so far suggested is to make desertion a felony, enabling the law to reach a deserting husband who has crossed the state boundary.

It taxes ingenuity to find the best way of helping a deserted wife and children. They must be kindly provided with enough for their needs, and with some hope of self-support in the future; and yet we must avoid any action which will encourage other men to abandon home when they tire of it or when work grows dull. The temporary abandonment of a household of their own is often the wisest plan, we helping the mother to earn support for herself and one or more children, while friends or charities care for the others. Another section of this Conference, that on destitute and neglected chil-

dren, helps us in such need. Later, when mother and children can earn enough, they may be reunited to support themselves in family life without the recreant husband's presence or help.

In encouraging any separation of children from their parents or from each other for a time or permanently, and, indeed, in all care of broken families, the controlling consideration must be the homes of the future. These children are to be heads of families in those homes.

Though the broken and imperfect families are so many, yet every general charitable society, every church, knows a still larger number of whole families in need,— children with both father and mother, and sometimes a grandparent or maiden aunt. In some the bread-winners have merely failed to find the right opportunity to earn, but in most there is some lack, either of character or of health.

In half of these whole families there is sickness; in more than a third there is either laziness, improvidence, or poor judgment; in about a third there is intemperance. These fractions overlap each other, and there remain many with whom none of these difficulties appear; yet the problem is not merely to provide an income, not merely to help them to earn a living. They need to be strengthened as men or women, or to be put into better conditions.

Sickness, indolence, mistakes, drink,— who can say whether these causes are much more prevalent among needy families than among their neighbors whom something saves from reaching the point of acute distress? Think of the difficulties of some special family in need, and consider how we may learn to distinguish between what is peculiar to that family and must be individually conquered and what is borne in common with all its little community and must be cured by social or legislative action.

Two ways of learning seem open to us: one, to continue our intercourse with the family after the acute trouble is past, to look out on the world through their eyes; the second, to cultivate the acquaintance of other families and study the life of the neighborhood.

Certainly, when their distress introduces us to a family, we are given an opportunity greater than that of relieving their need. We may use it, if need be, toward building up habits and virtues which are as essential to happy family or social life as to industrial success. We may help them toward cleanliness, or temperance in eating or

drinking, toward truthfulness or courage, to acquire a taste for wholesome pleasures, the power of choosing well, or the habit of foresight.

But, if we are careless in giving relief or in the other influences we set about them, we may help to break down some of these very virtues. The opportunity for individual helpfulness is there, opened to us as their distress becomes known ; and we may make use of it ourselves directly, or by interesting a friend, or by making connection between the family and some constructive social work going on in the church or the neighborhood, or in all these ways at once.

The opportunity for social helpfulness, for improving the conditions surrounding this special family, is not, perhaps, as obvious, but I believe it is as real. As we learn to know something of the neighborhood, of its industries, its opportunities for making money and for spending it, the tone of its public spirit, its pleasures, its ambitions, we find others who are or may become interested. Together we may push forward movements for local improvements, for better sanitation, more open spaces, more beauty, more light and air in the dwellings, better laws or better enforcement of law. And presently we find ourselves looking from a new point of view upon questions of immigration, of taxation, of good government in general.

If we are interested deeply in the affairs of any one needy family, we compare our own family budgets with theirs. We consider what are the essential things that, whether we had much money or little. we would make sure to give to the children who are nearest and dearest to us, and how we would reach better conditions. We try to put ourselves in the place of this needy family. Nothing is more helpful to the understanding of what that place is than knowledge of the lives of other families having much the same up-bringing, the same opportunities and surroundings. Here we need counsellors,—the charitable or philanthropic workers on the one hand, and on the other the men and women who know the neighborhood through long residence or business interests therein. Their knowledge may lead us to see the next short step up for the particular family we have in mind and to assist the family, as a friend may, to take that step and another and another after the immediate pressure of need is past, perhaps beginning even while that pressure is on.

Through the social settlements the world is learning how the poor live. But, as Miss Jane Addams said in this Conference four years

ago: "It is nonsense to say that one cannot know the poor who does not live with them. You know the poor if you take pains to know them." If we take that pains with hopeful faith in the ultimate outcome, we learn how to help up those we know among them; and in doing this we may discover what needs to be done by them all and with them all to lift the whole neighborhood, the whole city.

These are some of the thoughts which have led me to realize two great wants common to all of us who have to do with needy families in their homes: first, the need of special knowledge and the training of ourselves in charitable work; second, the need of general knowledge or a more complete understanding of the lives of poor families who are not in distress. The speakers who follow me will lend us their counsel on these two sides of our great subject.

PRESENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR TRAINING IN CHARITABLE WORK.

BY JEFFREY R. BRACKETT,

PRESIDENT OF DEPARTMENT OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, BALTIMORE, MD.

The president of Harvard University, that great educator and great man, has said, "As a people, we do not apply to mental activities the principle of the division of labor, and we have but a halting faith in special training for high professional employments." This National Conference has proclaimed year by year the conviction that work in charity and correction which is worthy of the name of charity, which aims at cure, reformation, prevention, requires mental activity, and should be classed as a high calling. What opportunities are there now in this country for training in charitable work? Are we using our opportunities as we should?

Let us distinguish first between training and instruction. Of late there has been a noteworthy increase in the number of universities, colleges, and theological schools which offer courses more or less on public aid, charity, and correction. That academic work, well done, is of great value; but, speaking generally, because briefly, it is

essentially instruction, the imparting of information,— it is not essentially training. Academic work, after all, is chiefly to lead the mind to think accurately, to weigh justly causes and results in any field of knowledge. Its chief contribution to-day to the cause of charity is in doing that, and in so arousing the interest of students, through special instruction, that, when they go out into various duties here and there, they will promote progressive charitable work.

Those who take up charitable work as a calling of chief interest, whether paid or as volunteers, whether or not they have been to college, need to get as quickly and as well as they can, with as little waste to themselves and others, the element which enters with instruction into education,— experience. If possible, they should be trained by persons of experience.

We are familiar with training schools in many fields of activity, as in medicine, school-teaching, church work. The Young Men's Christian Associations can get secretaries from their training school, with its three-year course. Librarians are now trained in special schools.

The Boston Associated Charities began a few years ago — and Baltimore has since followed — the rule of a certain period of instruction and training by the general secretary for applicants for the positions of district agents. The agreement is that they drop out after a reasonable time of training, if they prove to be lacking in characteristics essential to their own success and the welfare of the society and the needy. The more we can get the right men and women at the heads of our institutions and agencies, the more will these become training schools, as the master used to train his apprentice and the doctor his student.

Despite the earnest pleas of Miss Dawes, Miss Richmond, and others at several of our Conferences since 1892, there is as yet no training school for charity workers to which any properly qualified person may readily turn for a sufficiently long term of instruction combined with real training. But the "class in philanthropic work," conducted by the Charity Organization Society of the city of New York in the summer of 1898, and repeated the two summers following, has become the Summer School in Philanthropic Work under a special committee of the society, with representatives from other societies, and begins its fourth session in June next.

The details of this school are to be found in the reports of the New York society and the *Charities Review*.* I call to your attention, however, the following facts. For six weeks of each of the past three summers, from twenty to thirty men and women have attended lectures, taken part in discussions, made special inquiries, visited institutions and agencies, worked with experienced workers in charity and correction. Last year the twenty-four students registered for the full course, and the six present for portions of it, included graduates from fifteen universities and colleges and workers of some experience from thirteen charitable organizations. They came from eleven states. Three weeks were given to the subject of the care and treatment of needy families in their homes; one week to the care of destitute, neglected, and delinquent children; another week to neighborhood improvements; and another week was divided between medical charities and institutional care of adults. The method of the school is practical. The speakers are leaders in their lines of work; and some of them, spending several days with the members of the class, add the personal acquaintance and opportunities for informal talks.

The requirements for admission include a degree from a college or a year of actual service done in philanthropic work. The aim is to get those persons who have given reasonable promise of intelligent, useful activity.

The committee in charge, knowing that no class lasting for a few weeks, or even for a few months, can give a real training, are asking for money to establish several fellowships, which will allow some members of the school to make special inquiries and to do work under persons of experience for periods of a year at least. The school now gives a bird's-eye view of the wide field of opportunities, with points of special interest carefully pointed out by those who know them well.

Are the members of the National Conference using this beginning of a training school as they might for the benefit of the various agencies for whose management they are responsible? How can you spend seventy-five or one hundred dollars better than in sending to it one of your promising officials?

There is one means of training — not perfect, of course, but very valuable — which can be used in any community where there is one

*Now published as the monthly magazine number of *Charities*.

person who knows the standard literature of charity and who has done persistent personal work in the homes of the needy. It is a study class, like the one Miss Zilpha D. Smith, general secretary of the Boston Associated Charities, has led for three years. It should consist of not over a half-dozen persons. Those of some experience are preferred. It does not merely read: it studies certain books and papers, experiences are compared, customs are probed, good ways are proved. A condition of membership is personal work for the uplift of a family in distress.

All such educational work can be made more effective now because we have in this National Conference and in local conferences, in the growing current literature of charity, notably *Charities*, a means of keeping somewhat in touch with other workers and thinkers. *Charities* should be to us what the best medical journal is to the physician.

Opportunities for training in charitable work, open to those who do not work in an institution or agency with the desire to join its staff, are only in their beginning. We shall watch with interest the few fellowships which have been established recently for social and charitable study and work, somewhat under experienced guidance, in settlements, such as the University of Michigan fellowship at Chicago Commons and the Harvard, Dartmouth, and Amherst fellowships at South End House, Boston. We shall hope for the use of fellowships in the development of the New York Summer School in Philanthropic Work. We shall hope for the spread of classes for real study and real work under leaders of experience in the charity organization societies.

The aim of the members of this Conference is to lessen pauperism and crime, suffering and evil. Many influences will help us. But these meetings teach one great lesson: we must increase in more and more communities more wide-spread and earnest conviction that the person who can best work out the needed methods for any given time and place are those — paid officials or volunteers — who can add to natural good parts a high purpose, a reasonable knowledge of the experience of others' work, and to that a reasonable knowledge of the needs and possibilities of those for whom they care.

In conclusion, let us acknowledge the debt we all owe to the New York Charity Organization Society and the Boston Associated Charities,— to the former for founding and fostering the *Charities*

Review and the Summer School in Philanthropic Work, to the latter for keeping before us the great truth that most effective work for the needy is based on a knowledge by personal experience of their needs and possibilities. These societies have shown us the beginning of the way,— a long and steep but lofty reaching way.

SOME PROBLEMS OF THE FAMILY.

BY JOHN GRAHAM BROOKS.

I have been warned that in dealing with this subject I am to speak, not to the so-called charity expert, but to (what most of us are) average learners in charity methods. Thus, at the risk of putting the expert straightway to sleep, I shall give a very simple summary of experience as it bears upon the needy family in the home.

The stages through which we have passed are, roughly: (1) that of almsgiving pure and simple; (2) that of the friendly investigator absorbed in the simple, personal relation to the one needing help; (3) the friendly visitor developed, touched by the social spirit and influenced by the thought of the family as a whole in its relations to the larger life of the community in which the family exists.

The family as conditioned by the community, acting and reacting upon it, first makes clear to us why such stress has come to be laid on the causes out of which poverty springs, and the whole list of measures calculated to reach through and beyond the person. It is agreed that the person must be dealt with for his own sake,— dealt with tenderly and adequately, but dealt with as a part of somewhat greater than himself. No more hopeful light has been thrown upon this problem than the cheering evidence that what is really the wisest and best succor for the individual is also best socially.

A skilled specialist in Boston told the Day Nursery teachers that in his youth it was thought that society could not afford to give the best treatment to the sick babies of the poor. "We have learned,"

he added, "that the one thing society cannot afford is to give them anything else than the best which science affords." The vast experience gathered under the German Sick and Accident Insurance tells the same story. Even from a business and social point of view, it is found wiser to use the best resources that science can command to heal the ills that befall working men and women. This principle is general, but we need its encouragement. It will the better enable us to render our aid effective, while it strengthens our hold upon all that our problem is, whether we are conscious of it or not.

As we pass to the more definite problem, let me say that I am throughout thinking of concrete cases as conducted by actual visitors whom I have known. For seventeen or eighteen years I have kept a sort of commonplace charity book in which are recorded a large number of cases. From these I select those best calculated to illustrate the principles of helpfulness in dealing with the kind of family with which we are now concerned.

We are discussing that form of charity which requires (1) investigation, (2) registration, (3) friendly visiting. Both investigation and registration are solely for the sake of those whom we wish to help, solely to make our aid effective. We cannot really help without knowing the need to which we minister. We cannot continue this help in the social sense, and provide for future contingencies, without a systematic record of the facts. It is well to remember that the poor will never take kindly to "investigation," that no duty of the visitor requires more delicacy and tact. I have known a visitor to get every information she required by communication about her own family and the natural responses called out.

Our first need is to know what has happened to bring the family to want. Is it death of the bread-winner, an accident, sickness, loss of work, shiftlessness, or other vice? We are happy if we touch the family at once, before various desperate shifts have been adopted to avoid appealing for help. It may be that debts have been incurred, chattels mortgaged, furniture bought by instalment, an overload of burial and other insurance taken on. Even if help has at once to be given, these things must be known before our best service can be rendered. What, then, are the resources left to the family? Who and where are the relatives? What have they done, and what can they be induced to do? Neighborly help almost

certainly there has been. None is better or safer; and, whatever we do, this neighborly relation should be guarded with utmost solicitude. No one knows as the neighbor knows, nor is anything worse than that which breaks up or imperils this natural kinship. It is not primarily of direct gifts from neighbors that I am thinking, but of those natural expressions of responsibility for a decent family in misfortune that lives near one, such as finding work. If it is noised about that the charity visitor has taken this responsibility or that help has been at once promised so that work is not immediately necessary, these best agencies for helpfulness may be crippled.

This first looking at the possible and unused resources implies that nothing in the way of charity may be necessary. I doubt if, in a given hundred of first applicants, thirty of them would be found proper subjects for charity aid. I have known again and again a trained visitor to save the family group to almost immediate independence by showing clearly what it means to take charity. These had mostly been urged by church visitors to ask, simply because there was a temporary embarrassment. When the situation was carefully talked out, it was found possible to meet the emergency. But, for the thirty that remain, the same reasons exist to study every avenue that diminishes the need of outside help.

One visitor of whom I am thinking has taught a widow with three children how to market, how to use the diet kitchen, how to prepare delicate and nourishing cereals, so that every dollar counts literally for more comfort than three dollars of this widow's previous uninstructed expenditure. This visitor is never thought of in that little group as having anything to do with charity, but only as a friend. She tells this widow her own troubles, her difficulties with her children, why she does not buy quack medicine, shows every opportunity of evening schools, loan libraries, day nursery, the dispensary, the Fresh Air Fund, and the kindergarten, and how to get her tax abated. She overcomes the widow's horror of the hospital, when her child is ill, by taking her there and showing her the tenderness of the treatment, and how glad the well-to-do are to send their sick to hospitals.

The extraordinary development of resources for the needy in our cities during the last generation is but most imperfectly known, and the best uses of these resources almost wholly unknown until they are wisely taught.

In another family the husband was alive and capable of service. Every means was at first exhausted to make him again the bread-winner rather than first find work for the wife. It is too unhappy an exception that the wife should have the least encouragement to support the natural bread-winner. When the wife, as is so usual, came for help (or, worse still, a child), the man was seen, and made to feel that it was for him to make all applications for aid. The shortest road to destruction is for the man to let the wife and child beg for the family support.

If it be the old and despairing case of the chronic drinker, it may, I think, be said confidently that wife and children should not be helped after it is clearly seen that the father exploits the aid for his own maintenance. The cry is raised against "breaking up the family." At that point where the father consents to live the saloon life by the help of charity, the family is already broken up in the worst possible way. To save what is left of it is our only problem. The exceptions with this type are so many and of so delicate a nature that any rule must be lightly held:—

> "He is a fool who lives by rule,
> But a greater fool who has *no* rule."

I mean only that in cases where the father has had perfectly fair chances which he as habitually ignores, living meantime on charity gifts, the duty to take the proper legal steps to get rid of him is much clearer than seems generally to be held. So, too, as long as children are allowed to play truant or are sent begging, the ground is good for refusing aid until these evils are corrected.

Where a fairly secure relation has been established with the family, it is well to hold very clearly in mind a few general principles which I should summarize thus,—the fatuity of the occasional dole, the advantage of a steady and uniform and, above all, adequate help, the utmost avoidance of publicity, recognizing during the necessitous period that there is no real advantage in the fiction that money given "is a loan," that, unless good reasons are at hand to show that the money can be repaid and is likely to be paid, every healthful relation between the visitor and the family is weakened by this fiction. So, too, with giving "in kind." The visitor's hold is very partial unless money is as safe as groceries. This assumes, of course, that the stage of considerable mutual confidence has been

reached, and that the object is to strengthen this confidence. After some instruction in buying had been given, I have known a visitor to make of money instead of clothes or groceries a powerful educational agency.

I have heard a philanthropist defined as one who hated the ways of the poor, as, for example, the lack of intelligence in spending their small earnings. This, I think, has led us to over-emphasize the virtue of saving. I would avoid the grotesque extreme of many socialists who count it a vice and a hypocrisy to urge saving upon the poor; but I feel sure that our emphasis should first be not upon saving, but upon wise and effective spending,— the spending that can easily be made to furnish three or four times the comfort that is gained by the average use of income among the class now under consideration.

The immense fact of immigration indicates another point that the visitor cannot ignore. Let me put it in the form of an illustration. A visitor goes into a family from the south of Italy. She does for them just what she would do for an American family. A shrewd and kindly Italian teacher, genuinely interested in the misfortunes of his countrymen, told me, "Your American charities spoil my people." He meant only that the standard of living in south Italy was, relatively to ours, so low that the difference ought not to be lost sight of.

Again, if the "instruction stage" has been reached, the stage where the visitor is trying to teach the family to use available resources, and to avoid the exploiter in all forms,— the pawn-shop, the local money-lender, quack medicines, the instalment man in his many disguises,— it seems to me few better services can be rendered than advising against all forms of insurance which are likely to come to them. If these different forms of insurance ever were of service, the development of savings-banks and home saving associations can now do the poor far safer service.

CHARITABLE CO-OPERATION.*

BY MARY E. RICHMOND,

GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE PHILADELPHIA SOCIETY FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY.

About the year 1880, it occurred to different groups of people in a number of American cities to start a new charity. This was, in itself, no unusual thing, but their reason was peculiar. They started a new charity because there were so many already. Religious and secular activity in philanthropy had created, in our large cities, many different agencies. However well these may have been organized internally, they were not organized with reference to each other, and this fact led to the formation of charity organization societies.

The seal of the New York society illustrates its chief object. The seal represents a chain each link of which is some form of charitable activity. The links are marked "official and private relief," "churches and missions," "relief societies," "homes and asylums," "hospitals and dispensaries," "friendly visitation," "provident schemes and fresh air"; and then, binding these links together in a circle, is a band inscribed "Charity Organization Society of the City of New York."

This conception of co-operation would seem to be broad enough and difficult enough of realization to satisfy any one, but it has been immeasurably broadened by the charitable practice of every successful charity organization society. Co-operation on the official side, as it concerns the relations of charitable bodies, is still very important; but co-operation as a working principle applicable to every act of the charity worker is fundamental. It may be well, therefore, to consider this daily habit of co-operation in some detail before turning to the question of co-operation among charities.

I. Co-operation with the Poor and their Neighbors.

When one points out that the field of charitable co-operation is not limited to charities alone, but extends to everything affecting the life of the poor, and to the poor themselves, the proposition seems almost

* Only a portion of this address was delivered at the Conference. It is printed in full by request and with the permission of the Executive Committee.

self-evident; but its hearty acceptance marks an important and comparatively recent change in charitable ways of thinking.

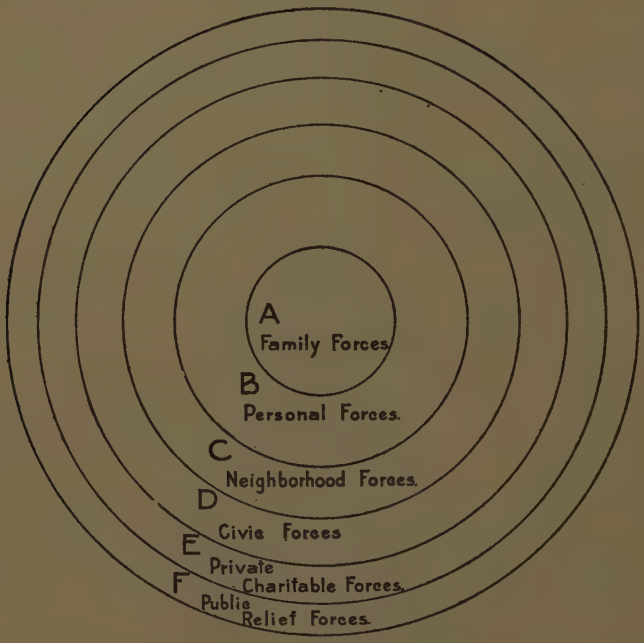
The success of this more personal conception of co-operation depends upon the attitude of mind of the individual worker. That first moment in which any applicant and any charity agent confront each other is a solemn one, for the applicant's future depends in no small degree upon what the agent happens to *think* about the resources of charity. The record of one such interview has been brought to my attention, in which, after the usual names, ages, etc., the agent had made this entry: "Nothing unfavorable could be found out about this family. Gave fifty cents." That closed the record, but it led to interesting speculations as to the worker's point of view.

The series of circles on the following page, with the accompanying list of forces, is an attempt to picture, though in very crude fashion, the resources of the modern charity worker in his efforts to befriend families in distress. The family life is pictured by a circle at the centre. Then surrounding this are circles representing, first, the personal forces that lie outside the family, but nearest to it,— the neighborhood forces, the civic forces, the private charitable forces, and, last, the public relief forces of the community. The resources of which the untrained and unskilful exclusively think — the groceries, fuel, clothing, and cash at the charity worker's command — are only a small part of his actual resources, of course; and even the list given under this diagram is very incomplete. It may be indefinitely extended for any given city.

The diagram assumes three things: First, that the charity worker really knows the family he is trying to help. A painstaking investigation is supposed to have brought to light the resources mentioned in the diagram in so far as they affect the given family. Second, that, in choosing forces with which to co-operate, the worker will select those that are nearest to the family and most natural for them rather than the forces that lie nearest to and are most natural for him. Third,— and may the day be hastened when this explanation is no longer necessary! — it is assumed that not for one moment has he allowed the completion of his investigation or the drawing up of his plan of co-operation to interfere with the prompt relief of urgent need.

All city families, rich and poor alike, are surrounded by the forces indicated within these circles; and the failure of the four groups

DIAGRAM OF FORCES WITH WHICH THE CHARITY WORKER MAY CO-OPERATE.



A.—*Family Forces.*
- Capacity of each member for
  - Affection.
  - Training.
  - Endeavor.
  - Social development.

B.—*Personal Forces.*
- Kindred.
- Friends.

C.—*Neighborhood Forces.*
- Neighbors, landlords, tradesmen.
- Former and present employers.
- Clergymen, Sunday-school teachers, fellow church members.
- Doctors.
- Trade-unions, fraternal and benefit societies, social clubs, fellow-workmen.
- Libraries, educational clubs, classes, settlements, etc.
- Thrift agencies, savings-banks, stamp-savings, building and loan associations.

D.—*Civic Forces.*
- School-teachers, truant officers.
- Police, police magistrates, probation officers, reformatories.
- Health department, sanitary inspectors, factory inspectors.
- Postmen.
- Parks, baths, etc.

E.—*Private Charitable Forces.*
- Charity organization society.
- Church of denomination to which family belongs.
- Benevolent individuals.
- National, special, and general relief societies.
- Charitable employment agencies and work-rooms.
- Fresh-air society, children's aid society, society for protection of children, children's homes, etc.
- District nurses, sick-diet kitchens, dispensaries, hospitals, etc.
- Society for suppression of vice, prisoner's aid society, etc.

F.—*Public Relief Forces.*
- Almshouses.
- Outdoor poor department.
- Public hospitals and dispensaries.

of forces — family, personal, neighborhood, and civic — to resist the downward pull of gravitation would render any family dependent. In every family asking charitable aid, therefore, the natural resources have so far failed as to send its members crashing down through circles B, C, D, to E, the circle of private charity. The problem of charity is to get them back into A again by rallying the forces that lie between. It has sometimes seemed worth while, in puzzling cases, to advise the charity agent to go to work as deliberately as this: Taking the list of forces in each circle, to check off each one that has been tried, and then make a note of ways in which to use the others. The device is mechanical; but, when a family continues long in E, the football of circumstance, helped "a little" by many agencies and individuals, and taught to believe that a wretched appearance and dependent attitude will make the most effective appeal, then any device seems justified that will help to restore the family to independence and self-respect.

Let us consider the contents of these circles, bearing in mind that the best force to use, other things being equal, is the force that lies nearest the family.

Circle A, Family Forces. — The first resource of charity, and the one most commonly overlooked, is within the needy family itself. The charity worker's first question should be: What powers of self-help are there here that may at once take the place of charitable relief, or else may be developed by charity to take its place hereafter? What is the capacity of each member for endeavor, for training, for social development, for affection? Is any one able-bodied? If so, the able-bodiedness is, in itself, a resource to be developed. Can any one be taught to earn more or to earn? Can any one here be helped to more effective living by a social pleasure that I can throw in his way? Is there any affection latent here that I can appeal to, and so put new heart into a discouraged worker?

In other words, what the family can do, what it can learn, what it can enjoy, what it can feel,—these are the important things. In these we have the greatest resource of charity and the most important field of co-operation. The charity worker with the co-operative spirit is always thinking of things he can do together *with* the family, and the worker who lacks this spirit can think only of things to do *for* them.

The development of aids to this department of co-operation should

be encouraged in every possible way. We need more manual training, more social clubs, more charities with the thought of education in them; and, above all, we need to have the family idea emphasized in all such work. The old cry of "Save the children!" must be superseded by the new cry of "Save the family!" for we cannot save the one without the other.

Circle B, Personal Forces.— All who have established relations with the family that are genuinely personal, though they may be classified in the diagram under neighborhood or civic or charitable forces, deserve to be included in this circle. The church, for instance, may become a personal force of the greatest potency, touching the life of the family more nearly than any save the nearest kindred; but, too often, it allows itself to drop to circle E, where it is regarded by the poor as merely a source of supplies.

This circle of personal forces is the strategic point in charity work, but charities may be prevented from entering it by two lacks,— lack of personal knowledge of the poor and lack of personal interest. We have all been the victims of the official who protects himself by a highly impersonal manner; and, even when we have understood, we have been offended. The poor, who do not understand, are doubly offended when the charity worker's attitude is impersonal. It is possible, of course, to let our insistence upon personal service degenerate into cant. Not all personal service is effective: it may be unquestionably personal and also very mischievous. But, after making due allowance for the note of exaggeration, what impersonal service can ever be effective in dependent families? There may be whole classes of dependents whose lot could be bettered by wholesale measures. But family problems are so complex, they demand such careful manipulation; and that charity will be most successful in dealing with them which so arranges its work as to avoid overcrowding any one worker with too many details. The most successful continuous work will usually be done by volunteers acting under intelligent leadership and with a trained paid agent.

The Boston Associated Charities regards one hundred and twenty-five new families a year as the limit that can be successfully cared for by one trained agent working with a group of volunteers. Charitable work so arranged and done in the right spirit becomes a personal force in the lives of the poor. Placed securely in circle B, it is in a position to co-operate effectively with the family and with its friends and neighbors.

Relatives sometimes lose sight of their less fortunate kindred through no deliberate neglect; and kindred should always be turned to, not only for relief, but for information and advice. Their suggestions are often most useful.

The Fulham Committee of the London Charity Organization Society made an interesting analysis, a few years ago, of the sources of relief in pension cases. It was found that 29 per cent. of the pension money administered by them was obtained from charitable individuals who were strangers to the pensioners, 22 per cent. came from old employers, 16 per cent. from charities, 13 per cent. from friends, 12 per cent. from relatives, 6 per cent. from clubs, and 2 per cent. from the clergy. The large percentages from relatives, friends, and old employers are very striking; but we must remember, in comparing this work with our own, that many ties of kindred are severed in this country by the sweep of the Atlantic Ocean, and that the relations of employer, neighbor, and fellow-workman are all rendered less permanent by our migratory habits. English charity can develop the resources of neighborhood and of kindred more easily. It is well to note, however, that England has also furnished us with some striking examples of a perverted charitable practice in this regard. Just before the reform of the English poor law the following bill was presented by an overseer to be paid out of the rates: —

To Elizabeth W., a present for her kindness to her father	5*s.* 0*d.*
To Lucy A., for looking after her mother when ill	3*s.* 6*d.*
To Mary A., for sitting up at night with her father	2*s.* 0*d.*

Let local conditions be what they may, they can always be made worse by a charity official with such views as these.

Circle C, Neighborhood Forces.— Families often receive a great deal of neighborly help before becoming applicants for charity. The local tradesmen and landlords, especially those who sublet, have given credit, neighbors have been kind and helpful; and these local resources have been more or less exhausted before the aid of charity has been called in. On the other hand, the neighborhood feeling seems to die out in sections of the city in which charitable relief is most obtainable. During the blizzard of 1899 charity workers in Baltimore found three times as many cases of absolute destitution on the side of the city in which were situated most of the well-to-do residences and rich churches.

With sophisticated people the pressure of social influence regulating their standard of life and conduct, comes not so much from the immediate neighborhood in which they live as from a wider circle of friendship and acquaintance. But the unsophisticated are still very sensitive to neighborhood influences. The social settlement is one of the forces that have recognized and made good use of this fact.

A wise use of neighborhood forces is also the basis of success in the district plan adopted by our larger charity organization societies. The district agent and district committee that know best the normal life of their district will deal most wisely with its abnormal conditions. A good background of experience of the normal life of poor people is a district agent's best safeguard against mistake. Then, too, the friendly acquaintance with doctors and employers and tradesmen, the quiet coming and going about one's daily work, bring with it the best possible co-operation of an unofficial kind. The good agent reads the interplay of social forces within his district as from an open book, and no impatience with the mischievous and evil tendencies working therein can blind him to the human and hopeful side.

Circle D, Civic Forces.— The civic representatives within the district are important neighborhood forces. For better or worse, they wield an influence that no charity equals,—for better, because good teachers, good policemen, all good city officials coming in contact with the poor, are doing a quiet and effective service in their behalf that many charitable people have no conception of; for worse, because the poor are so entirely at the mercy of bad officials. A district agent will need all his courage and faith when he finds that policy-shops, "speak-easies," and immoral houses are receiving in his district the protection of the police and of the magistrates. Sometimes he is fairly overwhelmed by a sense of the shamelessness of civic power so used against the most helpless class of citizens, and nothing seems worth while until all these agents of corruption can be swept away by a general uprising of good people. But the worst thing about good people is their unwillingness to work hard at small tasks, and district work is made up of a multiplicity of small tasks. The corrupt politician's success is due to the fact that he has worked hard at the weary details of building up a district plan of his own. The ward worker needs no diagrams to explain to him a method of co-operation with which he has long been familiar. It is time that the charitable took a leaf from their book, and used for a good purpose

the neighborhood forces that these self-seekers have employed with such energy and persistence.

But individual officials are often better than the system under which they work. The reformer loses nothing by recognizing this fact. In a sense, they are victims, too; and no one of them can be too insignificant to be worth winning over to wise views about charitable relief. One of the most helpful neighborhood workers that the writer ever met was a Tammany truant officer, and a part of his helpfulness could be traced to the patience and tact of the charity organization agent in his district.

Circle E, Private Charitable Forces.— The relation of the forces within circle E to each other is so important a part of this subject that its treatment is reserved for a separate section. The question that most concerns us here is the order in which charitable agencies should be used in the care of needy families. Some of the best work can be done with applicants that have asked for charitable aid for the first time, if the agency appealed to is careful to protect these from contact with many charities, and secure the needed aid from the most natural sources. But in another and large class of families natural sources are insufficient; and the family's own capacities can be developed, if at all, only very slowly and with great patience. These families must be given relief, and in some cases for a long while. And here we have one of the most important problems of co-operation; for the *way* in which this help is given,— its source, its amount, its degree of flexibility, its greater or less association with friendly influences, its insistence upon or neglect of possible self-help,— all these things decide whether the relief shall be a strong lever to uplift the family or a dead weight to drag it down. The unintelligent administration of private relief has drawn many a family into permanent dependence in circle F upon public relief.

When, therefore, a choice of sources of help must be made, it cannot be too often repeated that we should choose the charitable sources best adapted to deal adequately with the particular need, and not the sources that we ourselves happen to like or find it easiest to use. Charity workers get into the habit of using certain combinations of agencies that come readily to mind or that give them little trouble. For any given family there is only one best possible combination, there are a dozen second bests. It is our duty to find the best.

If a family has held membership in a church for a long while and

has regarded the church as a part of its normal life, then that church becomes a perfectly natural and neighborly source of help when the family is in distress. But, where all church connection has lapsed, a church of the denomination to which one or both heads of the family formerly belonged is a more natural source of help than a general relief society. The national organizations for relief also take precedence of general relief societies. And better than either (though this is still a disputed question) is relief procured from a charitable stranger, who will contribute a sum for a specific purpose, and take an interest in the result of its expenditure.

Circle F, Public Relief Forces.— Public relief is the best possible form of relief for some classes of dependants; but there are many reasons, into which it is impossible to enter here, for believing that public relief to families (public outdoor relief, as it is usually called) is, of all forms of relief, the most difficult to use as an incentive to self-help and independence. A number of our larger cities have abolished public outdoor relief, and others are trying to do so; but, wherever it still exists, the charity worker should strive to keep poor families "off the overseers' books" and out of circle F.

Those who have labored long in charitable work may be inclined to question a classification of social forces that places charity so low in the scale. But this diagram takes no account of the large classes of dependants and defectives not living in families. To most of these charity must be, so far as we can now see, the only resource. The hopeful thing about family life is that it is surrounded by so many resources besides those that can be described as charitable. The recognition of this fact, while it imposes upon charity a more delicate and self-effacing task, greatly enlarges the field and the importance of its operations. So far from belittling charity, this view would seem to strengthen its claim to recognition as a great social force.

From the charity worker who reported of a family, "Nothing unfavorable; gave fifty cents," up to the best modern type of professional worker, who patiently strives to develop, by co-operation, all possibilities of help within and without the family, is a far cry. One wonders how long the charitable public will tolerate paid agents of the first type, who are nothing but dispensers of ineffectual doles, when it is now possible to secure the services of devoted and well-trained men and women, whose treatment of distress would be helpful and thorough. One wonders, too, how long the work of a charitable society

will be measured by the number of tons, pounds, or yards of stuff that it has dispensed. The only test of charitable work in families is the test suggested in this analysis of charity's resources; namely, the number of families lifted out of circle E and placed beyond the need of charity in a normal family life.

II.—Co-operation among Charities.

To say that the charities of a community should work together harmoniously is to make a statement so obvious that it sounds almost foolish, but to bring about this harmonious relation is a task so stupendous that only workers of large faith and tireless patience can succeed in it. Heart-sick must the charity worker often be who is striving with all his might to make dependent families independent, for he must find himself thwarted at many a turn by a philanthropic activity that is as irresponsible and mischievous as it is well-meaning.

Let us suppose that he has just succeeded, after repeated failures, in persuading the heads of a begging family to take honest work, when at the critical moment a new charitable sewing circle or an aid society discovers the family, lavishes supplies upon them, and the old speculative fever is rekindled. Or suppose he has secured a place for the eldest girl, where she will not earn at once, but where she will learn a good trade; and then the leading relief society suddenly decides to make aid conditional upon this child's earning something immediately at work in which there is no future for her. Or suppose the curly-headed boy, who has been kept from school and sent out to beg, has been so successful in winning money from thoughtless passers-by that he has fallen into bad ways, and the charity worker feels that the boy's salvation depends upon a complete change; but at this juncture the magistrate and the church visitor, touched by the tears of his mother, who needs "his earnings," help to get him off, and the family fortunes continue to drift. But one does not have to suppose such things: they are occurring all around us every day. They are not so bad as they were,—the tide has turned; but they are still bad enough.

Not so many years ago the charitable situation was like this: Conceive of twenty doctors dosing the same case at the same time, without consultation and each in his own way. Our medical code of ethics forbids such a state of things, but its results could be no more

disastrous among the sick than were our charitable practices among the poor. In none of the large cities was there any charitable code of ethics,— in some there is none to-day,— and a sort of philanthropic free riot prevailed. Figures may give us some conception of the magnitude of the danger. New York's new directory of charities describes, for Manhattan and the Bronx, nearly twenty-three hundred separate agencies, and for Brooklyn another thousand. Boston has a thousand, Baltimore about nine hundred, Philadelphia about twenty-four hundred. If, in these cities, each charity continued to do that which was right in its own eyes, and recognized no obligation to others working in the same field, the poor would suffer cruelly. All other arguments for charitable co-operation sink into insignificance beside this one, that our unwillingness to pull together causes such unnecessary suffering among the poor.

Fortunately, the tide has turned. Every city having a live charity organization society is supplied with an agency that will gladly serve as a means of communication among charities. No one has any excuse now for working in the dark, for the facts may be had. Only those who know intimately the history of earlier years can realize what this has accomplished. To young workers, just joining the ranks, many things must still seem disheartening; and it is a pity that they cannot grasp at once the significance of these slow changes, for the long view would be cheering. In nothing would the change seem so marked as in our willingness to co-operate with the poor themselves and with their neighbors.

The writer has been tempted to change the series of circles illustrating the forces with which we may co-operate into a second diagram, showing the view of a charity director of the old uncooperative type. In the second figure the central circle of the series would be occupied by the director himself; the next would contain his charitable society; the next, the subscribers to the same; the next, the big figures that make such an impression on the subscribers; and, last of all, somewhere on the remote circumference — little known and little understood — would appear the poor people, the beneficiaries of his charity.

Now the secret of effective co-operation is to bring about a revolution in this attitude of mind. The attitude is not so common as it used to be; but, wherever it still exists, there is no more effective bar to co-operation. It is not enough for charities to refrain from saying

disagreeable things about each other; it is not enough for them to make commercial contracts, dividing the burdens of investigation or relief. Real co-operation implies the hearty working together of those who are striving, with convictions held in common, toward some definite object. We have already seen that this definite object should be the restoration of as many poor families as possible to a position of independence. Some one has said that the greatest discovery of modern education is the child. We might paraphrase this by saying that the greatest discovery of modern charity is the poor family. That Scriptural lesson in proportion points the way for us,— "Seek ye first the kingdom of God, and his righteousness, and all these things shall be added unto you." When charities seek first the restoration of the dependant with energy and devotion, all the details of co-operation, falling easily and naturally into their right places, shall be added unto them.

If the highest co-operation is based upon agreement as to principles, such agreement is still a matter of slow growth. We must not expect people to change suddenly their whole theory with regard to poverty and its relief, because it does not happen to agree with ours. But out of a sincere interest in the poor, and a working together over individual problems, may come this higher co-operation if we take pains to make our treatment of every individual family a means to this end. Thoroughly efficient case work becomes our best stepping-stone. The patient unravelling of each individual problem, the quiet avoidance of showy schemes and boastful talk, the willingness to serve both the co-operative and the unco-operative, will surely win not only respect, but fellowship in the long run. It is best to say very little to other charitable bodies about co-operating until the habit is well established in our own daily practice; and, even then, the less formally we begin, the better.

"We are willing enough," says Mrs. Dunn Gardner, writing of her London fellow-workers, "to have a try to organize some large institution, or local charity, or parish meeting, or benevolent society; but, when it becomes a question of organizing individuals,— that is to say, of convincing them, one by one, that our principles are true, and of inducing them to guide their action by these principles,— we are most of us inclined to shirk the task. I believe myself that the wholesale system of doing things is as false when applied to organization as when applied to relief, and that important bodies can only be

won over to our side by carefully and thoroughly dealing with the individuals who compose them."

No one should be astonished to find that the method of dealing thoroughly with each poor family, as it has been described in this paper, applies equally well to our dealings with charities. To co-operate with the poor, we must know them. This is the first step in co-operating with a charity,— to know its history, its objects, and its limitations. We reveal our lack of interest and sympathy when we ask charities to do things that they were never intended to do. An energetic young doctor once said to the writer, "I just hated your society when I was on our hospital staff, for it always fell to my lot to visit the applicants for admission; and one of your agents, whose district was at the other end of the city, was forever writing about people whom I found to be in the last stages of some incurable disease." The agent in question had a thousand virtues; but the ability to put herself in another's place, to understand the limitations of a poor family or of a charity, was not one of them. She had the misfortune to be an insulator, and co-operation did not thrive in that particular district until she had resigned.

If we were to formulate the experience acquired from working with the poor into three maxims about working with the charitable, the first maxim would be that we must know a charity before we can co-operate with it. We must give ourselves up to a sympathetic appreciation of whatever is best in it before we can hope to get the best out of it. And the second maxim would grow naturally out of the first. When we have turned over to another charity a task that is clearly theirs, we must trust them to do it, and do it well. People often get unduly nervous about their work, and want either to do it all themselves or else to supervise it very closely. This state of mind kills co-operation. We must trust others; and, in the third place, we must teach them to trust us by a scrupulous care in keeping our promises. If we have said that we will do a thing, it should be known to be as good as done.

Humiliating to acknowledge, but beyond dispute, is the fact that the charitable subscriber is a cause of strife. The subscriber himself is not wholly without blame. In his efforts to escape from the appeals of two agencies, whose work is more or less closely allied, he has been known to say to each that he prefers to give to the other. Then the charities (being, like the subscriber, distinctly human) have

become imbittered against each other by these tactics. If their directors would only reason the matter out, they must realize that there is no fixed sum set aside by any community for charitable purposes. The amount can be increased or decreased at any time. It does not follow that, as the work of one charity becomes better and more favorably known, the subscriptions to others will fall off. Good work, well done and intelligently explained, wins financial support; and it may be affirmed with equal certainty that an unfriendly attitude among a city's charities loses financial support to every one of them. Such rivalry becomes a public scandal: all thoughtful people are disgusted by it. Wherever the impression has got abroad that the leading charities of a community will not co-operate with each other, and that their work, in consequence, is antiquated in method and unfortunate in result, the younger generation of givers are rapidly becoming alienated from all charitable interests. They are refusing to serve on charitable boards, and are withholding their money from benevolent objects. To put the question on the lowest possible plane, it *pays* charities to be co-operative.

Another bar to charitable co-operation, when we are foolish enough to permit him to become such, is the applicant. Sometimes he is stupid, and repeats messages incorrectly. Sometimes he is shrewd, and seeks his own advantage in getting two agencies at loggerheads. We should avoid sending an applicant from one charity office to another. It is bad for him, in the first place; and, when we send him home instead, we can communicate directly with the agency, state our reasons for so doing more clearly, and secure more intelligent action.

Turning from this more negative side of the subject, let us assume that charities have so far developed a corporate conscience that they are, for the most part, sincerely anxious to put poor people beyond the need of charity. For the most part, they are anxious; but their anxiety must make them jealously watchful of results before they wil discover that one of the obstacles to this end is a lack of systematic communication among charities engaged in any form of relief work in families. When they make this discovery, they will not be satisfied that poor families shall escape from the dangers of duplicated and unrelated relief by a happy accident. They will not be satisfied until some means of confidential communication has been established among charities, assuring to each agency a prompt report of what the others are doing in each family.

Registration of relief, as it is called, has been highly developed in a few cities, and with good results. The objections to it have proven, in actual practice, to be unimportant or mistaken. In Boston, where many agencies that held aloof at first have been induced to try it, nearly forty thousand confidential reports were received last year. Writing of the results of this exchange, Miss Frances Morse says, "We find registration justifying the belief of its projectors that it would afford positive information, would prevent the overlapping of relief, would save waste of time and effort by enabling societies to narrow their field and thus make their work more thorough, would detect imposture, and would make it possible so to map out the city that one could see what neighborhoods were most in need of improvement."

Another need that the co-operative spirit develops is a good directory of the charitable resources of the community. Such a book is indispensable to good work in a large city; for, through it, agencies may learn to avoid irritating blunders, and use each other more intelligently. A directory of charities is useful in two other ways. It brings to light needs that are not yet met by charity, so that existing agencies may work together to keep these needs before charitable testators and donors. It also shows in what direction the further development of charity is unnecessary. Often out of the sincerest desire to do good, and often, too, out of professional, denominational, or social rivalry, agencies are created for which there is no real need. People seem to have a passion for bringing charities into the world, and then leaving them without support. The death-rate among these weaklings is very heavy. Of all the charities established in Baltimore in four years, it was discovered that fifty-five per cent. had died within that time. The loss in money, time, and good temper that this implies, would have justified the community in charging a large debit against charity's account.

The co-operative spirit at work is an eminently practical spirit. Not satisfied with suppressing charities where they are not needed and developing them where they are, it will plan a division of labor among existing agencies upon the basis of allotting to each the part that it is best fitted to take. We have all recognized a certain child-like and engaging quality in Bottom's cry, "Let me play the lion, too." But when we see charities engaged in combining a home for the aged with an orphan asylum, or the feeding of the homeless with the

placing-out of children, or every imaginable sort of work with the relief of destitute families, we feel, like Peter Quince, that it is "enough to hang us all," and would say with him, "You can play no part but Pyramus." Then, if we are wise, we shall add (for Quince had the co-operative spirit), "Pyramus is a sweet-faced man; a proper man as one shall see in a summer's day; a most lovely, gentlemanlike man: therefore, you must needs play Pyramus." This queer combination of unrelated work in one society is the survival of a cruder stage of development. As our charity becomes more highly organized, it must disappear.

We have passed hastily in review some methods of charitable co-operation,— co-operation with the poor, with the forces that surround them; co-operation among charities in the treatment of the individual case, in the registration of relief, in the development and repression of charitable activity, and in the division of labor. We have seen that the highest and best co-operation is based upon a hearty acceptance of certain principles underlying charitable action; but, if two charities agree about anything, they can and should co-operate. It is not necessary to wait until they agree about everything. By making the most of their agreements and minimizing their differences, they acquire the habit of co-operation; and only after this habit has been acquired can they hope to secure that basis of agreement upon which large charitable and legislative reforms are founded. An improvised co-operation is seldom effective, for the lack of real cohesion among agencies hastily called together to ward off some legislative danger is too apparent. But, when these same agencies have established the habit of working together over smaller tasks, they march upon Albany or Harrisburg or Springfield or Boston or Annapolis with every chance of victory. The first larger fruits of the co-operative spirit, as shown in better child-saving and better housing laws, give promise of a more abundant yield in the future.

The fruit will not be sound, however, unless it spring from the good ground of the individual case. We have had large crops of legislative bad fruit from those who have insisted upon beginning at the other end. Charitable co-operation begins and ends in an intimate knowledge of the needs of individual poor people and in the patient endeavor to make them permanently better off.

UNUSUAL FORMS OF RELIEF.

BY DR. LEE K. FRANKEL.

MANAGER UNITED HEBREW CHARITIES OF NEW YORK.

The subject which has been assigned to me, "Unusual Forms of Relief," does not lend itself readily to discussion from the abstract academic standpoint. The term itself is relative. What may be unusual or uncommon in one community may be of every-day occurrence in another. The method of fifty years ago is obsolete to-day. What to-day is considered scientific and thorough will to-morrow be found impractical and useless. Whatever generalizations may therefore be attempted will be profitless and possibly misleading, since the entire subject is influenced by questions of locality, language, and of religious belief. It will be impossible to formulate any fixed rules that may be followed by all relief-giving agencies, since the subject is not a rigid, but a flexible one, and must be approached from the particular point of view of the individual society. For this reason I have thought it wiser to confine the fifteen minutes at my disposal to a presentation of certain forms of relief which would be considered unusual and uncommon by most of us who are engaged in active relief work.

In the gradual evolution of relief-giving from the crude form of indiscriminate almsgiving to the more refined and intelligent co-operative effort of to-day, certain principles of relief have developed, which, while not axiomatic, can nevertheless be stated with almost mathematical precision. I trust I shall be pardoned for mentioning specifically two of these principles before a meeting so well acquainted with them; but they have a distinct bearing upon the subject, since the "unusual forms of relief" which we shall discuss have had their origin in these two principles referred to. I refer to the well-understood idea that relief, if given, should be (1) adequate and (2) that it shall consider the future of the recipient as well as the present.

To the worker among the poor, and in particular to the student, there will soon come a realization of the fact that with these, as with their more favored brethren, there exist two distinct classes which I must call, for the want of better terms, a Bourgeoisie and Proletariat.

To the former belongs that constituency which, while requiring charitable interference, nevertheless possesses certain peculiar assets in the shape of relations, knowledge of the language of the country, residence in the country for some considerable period of time, some definite trade, occupation, or business which can be prosecuted in the community in which they live, acquaintance with the customs and manners of their neighbors, physical ability to work, citizenship, and inherited tendencies derived from ancestors living on the same soil. For this class it is necessary for the relief agency to do no more than to remove the immediate cause of distress, which in many cases is only temporary, in order to restore the individual or the family to economic independence.

To the other class belongs that ever-growing immigrant population who are the proletariat of the poor, in that they possess nothing but the ability to use their heads and their hands, and who, in most cases, are handicapped by ignorance of existing conditions, by inability to bring themselves in touch with their industrial surroundings, by absence of family ties, by lack of physical stamina, and frequently by religious peculiarities which differentiate them from their neighbors. Instead of possessing assets either subjective or objective, which they can tender in exchange for a livelihood, they are more usually burdened with liabilities brought from their parental home in the shape of traditions, customs, and usages which are not current in their adopted country and which are not readily eradicated.

The former class, the so-called bourgeoisie, is the one that is best known to our relief agencies. The poverty that is to be found here is very largely due to some form of degeneracy, and the work of the relief society is directed to removing the particular canker that has produced the poverty or to allaying the distress that may be found in order to prevent other forms of degeneracy from taking root. For cases such as these we have our usual forms of relief,—food, payment of rent, medical service, employment for the wage-earner, care of the child, rehabilitation in exceptional cases by making small loans, and, finally, where the degeneracy or poverty or illness has become too great, the almshouse.

For the second class a different treatment is necessary. To sum up the entire situation in as few words as possible, it is necessary to place the so-called proletariat, the immigrant alien who requires

charitable intervention, through causes that are objective and not subjective, in the possession of those assets which we have enumerated above, and which he lacks, owing to his previous non-residence, in the hope that they will place him on a par industrially, commercially, intellectually, and morally with his native-born neighbor. It is furthermore required that such constructive work as may be necessary shall be done in the shortest period of time, to prevent any dormant seeds of degeneracy from blossoming and bearing fruit.

The special forms of relief that have been recommended to overcome the deficiencies above mentioned are special only so far as they are to be applied to a particular class of the poverty-stricken and unusual, to the extent that they are to be applied, not merely to isolated cases, but to groups of individuals. For example, the granting of transportation to an applicant has been a part of the work of possibly every relief society in this Conference; but the establishment of an organization with the sole purpose of overcoming what Geoffry Drage has termed defective organization of industry, and of transporting numbers of workmen from unharmonious surroundings to localities where employment in their special fields is waiting for them, is a comparatively recent product of charitable effort.

An organization has been formed in New York which has gone into the congested districts, and has taken the workmen for whom no work could be found there, and has found work for them in various localities and districts throughout the country. To my knowledge, they have already sent away 1,500 people in a period of one year.

A study of the deficiencies under which our so-called proletariat class labors indicates that they must be classified under the following general headings: —

A. Lack of funds to enter into commercial competition.

B. Ignorance of special trades and inability to obtain the tools to carry on the same.

C. Absence of family ties to care for the dependent child.

D. Ignorance of language and customs.

The special form of relief that will offset the deficiency last mentioned does not come within the province of the average relief society, as it is altogether educational in character; and yet, in passing,

it may be mentioned that there is no form of assistance we can render to our beneficiaries that is so productive of good results and so lasting in its effects as the educational one. The inculcation of the lessons of patriotism, of civic pride, the knowledge obtained through our public school system, are forms of relief which open up a wider horizon to the poor and make them nobler and better citizens.

To the worker in this special field there is nothing so appalling at first glance as the woful lack of family ties and the inability to make proper provision for the family bereft of its wage-earner. It is characteristic of an immigrant population that the families constituting it are plethoric in children and barren of relations, so that it becomes a matter of extreme difficulty in the case of the death or defection of the principal wage-earner to keep the family together and to prevent the children from becoming public charges. The cases are but too common where the widow is left with a number of children with no relations to whom she may look for assistance and for whom there is no alternative but the breaking up of the family and the attending institutional care. A somewhat extended experience has shown that no relief is so beneficial in its results as a system of well-regulated pensions which supplement the earning capacity of the family by extending relief over a period of time until the children, in their turn, become wage-earners and make the family again independent. Such relief strikes the fundamental note in practical relief; namely, the preservation of the home and the self-respect and the integrity of the family.

The special organization to which I belong has in the last twenty-five years attempted, wherever it has been possible, to prevent the institutional care of children by caring for them in their own homes and by supplementing the wage-working capacity of the family. This particular society spends merely for this purpose alone between thirty and forty thousand dollars per annum, giving mainly to widows to maintain their families.

If we carry this principle of granting adequate relief one step further, we come to the very alluring proposition of furnishing the beneficiary with the means of livelihood and thus making him independent. This may be done from (*a*) the industrial standpoint by the teaching of handicrafts that have a market in the particular locality and by furnishing the tools to carry on the same, and (*b*) from the commercial standpoint by starting small business ventures

that will, if intelligently prosecuted, yield a margin of profit. The teaching of trades and the granting of tools to carry on the same is a method of relief that is frequently beset with dangers, since there is a tendency to teach that handicraft which can be acquired in the shortest period of time and which requires the smallest amount of intelligence for its acquisition. The result is obvious. More workmen are added to a field of labor in which in all probability the supply already exceeds the demand, and we have the diminished wage and the resulting starvation. On the other hand, if this means of relief is intelligently handled, if the trade to be taught has been selected only after a careful study of labor conditions and of the industrial laws of supply and demand, the results will be beneficial and salutary.

Starting in business is perhaps the most attractive of all methods of relief, and one most seldom undertaken, owing to the difficulty of successful accomplishment. Nor is the financial difficulty the only one. More frequently it is less of a task to find funds than to come to an intelligent understanding as to the ability of the beneficiary to undertake what may be demanded of him. Not all of us are geniuses, nor is each man so endowed from birth that we can predict his success in the commercial world. There is no rule by which we can measure a man's abilities. It would seem almost idle to theorize; and yet from the knowledge gained from experience we are warranted in assuming that certain subjective traits, as laziness, shiftlessness, etc., being absent, the majority of applicants established in business ventures will, if not successful in the current acceptation of the word, at least become independent of charitable interference.

I make this statement from a somewhat limited experience. Through the generosity of one of our citizens of New York, we had placed in our possession during the last year a fund to attempt the self-support of certain families. The money was used in placing seventy families in business, in amounts varying from $50 to $250. We took no family for whom we could possibly arrange relief in any other way. If we could have found work or used any other agency, we would have done so; but we found it impossible to care for the family by any other means, so that we have really worked for a selected class and for people for whom it was impossible to find other relief. The results, after one year's work and after careful investigation and watching of each family in the interval, has demonstrated

that 33 per cent. have been failures, and the families are again applicants for relief; 33 per cent. are successful. These families have remained in the condition we placed them, and in many cases have doubled or trebled the amount of stock we gave them. Of the remaining 33 per cent., we can safely say that the majority will in time become independent of charitable interference.

With this belief the starting of small business ventures comes within the province of the relief society, and especially for those relief agencies whose work lies among our proletariat poor. The same exacting care and thoughtful study that are required to teach a trade are needed here. It is not sufficient that the applicant should be established as a small trader. Before this is done, the situation should be intelligently discussed, and a carefully considered plan evolved, which should take into consideration the conditions of trade, the question of business competition, and the ability of each member of the family to assist in promoting the contemplated venture. With the business once started, the work of the relief society does not end: more frequently it only begins. It is in the early stages of such an undertaking that the word of advice, the helping hand, the intelligence that will surmount petty difficulties, are particularly needed to make the venture a successful one.

The notion that we may prevent pauperism by calling the relief which we may grant to our beneficiaries a loan has been termed by Miss Richmond a charitable superstition. This may be true for ordinary forms of relief; but, where a considerable sum of money is granted, as, for example, in the establishment of a business venture it is more than necessary that the recipient be given to understand that he must return the grant as soon as he is able. It is even wise to go a step further, and make the entire transaction a business one. Let the relation established be that of borrower and lender; and, if it is possible, let the loan be made by agencies created for this purpose,— agencies which loan money without interest and without collateral, but which may or may not require a sponsor for the borrower. Where this is not feasible, it is thoroughly within the province of the relief society to assume such a rôle, and to make the applicant realize that he has undertaken a responsibility which he is expected to meet.

What has been said of the unusual forms of relief enumerated is applicable to all others. An intelligent acquaintance with the ap-

plicants' condition is assumed. It is taken for granted that this condition is unusual and requires unusual remedies, and that, in the plan of relief proposed, questions of cost, time, and labor do not enter. Generally speaking, it may be said that unusual forms of relief shall be given in exceptional cases only. The danger in work of this kind lies in the fact that the unusual so readily becomes the usual, the uncommon merges into the common. Care must be exercised that, in our efforts to be of service, we do not forget those simpler and more natural remedies which lie at our door and with which we are more conversant. The procuring of employment makes less of a drain on the self-respect of the beneficiary than the grant of a considerable sum of money, and in the long run has less of a tendency to undermine those human traits that make for character.

When all has been said, however, there still remains the fact that exceptional conditions require exceptional measures, and that it behooves every relief society which desires to do its work conscientiously and thoroughly to use every means within its power to give that adequate relief to its beneficiaries which will prevent a recurrence of distress among them in the future.

XII.

The Principles of the Associated Charities.

PRINCIPLES AND METHOD IN CHARITY.

BY EDWARD T. DEVINE,

GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE CHARITY ORANIZATION SOCIETY OF NEW YORK CITY.

The principle of organized or associated charity is introduced where the task gets too big for unorganized, disassociated charity to perform; but it rests upon this spirit of kindliness, of courtesy, of human charity, because of the rarity of which Thomas Hood lamented, but because of the glorious abundance of which, unrecognized as it sometimes is, I feel that we should sing aloud with thanksgiving and praise.

If the world-wide desire to help others can once be effectively organized and associated and directed, we shall see the end of half the world's misery. We organize not because people are doing too much and should be restrained, but because, working in the dark and at cross purposes, their efforts are thrown away and fruitless. We organize charity, not because we are pained at the success of fraud and imposture and like the fun of exposing and punishing them, but because we are pained to see a child suffer for lack of resources which are worse than wasted in creating pauperism and chronic dependence. People sometimes think that the negative side of our work is over-emphasized; but I tell you it is not negative work, but the most positive and preventive work to divert a dollar from the manufacture of vagrancy to such other errands as the training of children, the supply of adequate relief for a family in trouble, the preservation of the integrity of a family where money can do it, as it sometimes can. The principle of associated charities, in one word, is that individual citizens who want to be charitable, and who are charitable, shall

band themselves together in a voluntary association to make their charity effective, to make it really change things, to remove the causes of destitution, to prevent in individual cases the recurrence of dependence, to insure that children shall not grow up paupers, that begging shall not remain a profitable industry while real misfortune bears alone its insupportable burdens, that every one who has a dollar or an hour to spare shall have a chance to spend his time or his money or both, under reasonable guarantees that they are not doing harm, that they are not wasted, but that they are doing good.

The method of the associated charities is that of the broad sunlight of knowledge. There are some things in any given case of distress which we cannot find out and others which are of no use to us; but there are a number of other things which we can find out and which do have a direct bearing on the course to be taken. In the name of common sense let us find out about those things. The inquiry which is made by the Associated Charities, when application is made for assistance, is not in the smallest degree for the sake of detecting imposture, protecting the pockets of the charitable, or dividing applicants into the two classes of the worthy and unworthy, deserving and undeserving, the helpable and the unhelpable. The purpose of the inquiry is to find out what the trouble is, to find out precisely how to remedy it, to find out what caused it, to find out how those causes, if possible, may also be removed. The investigation is not for the sake of the contributor, it is not for the sake of the fund, it is not for the sake of the annual report, it is not for the sake of the investigator. It is for the sake of the individual who is in trouble and for the sake of others like him who may be brought into trouble if we do the wrong thing. I suppose that the analogy of the physician may have been overworked. But investigation is precisely analogous to the diagnosis of the physician. There are patients foolish enough when they consult a physician to mislead him in regard to the causes of their affliction, particularly if a confession of the causes becomes a source of personal embarrassment; but the majority of those who seek a cure are frank, even garrulous in their anxiety to put the whole case before their advisers, and the skilful diagnostician gets the truth from both classes.

Something like this is really what takes place when the expert visitor of an associated charities calls upon a family reported to be in distress. Some shrink from exposing the faults and weaknesses

and misfortunes which have led to the destitution. The great majority, however, are frank to the point of embarrassment. They tell things which are relevant and things which are not. They answer questions readily enough. No unnecessary curiosity into private and remote relations ever manifests itself on the part of a visitor fit for his work. Confidences are waived aside as often as urged; and the interview is as brief, as definite, as searching, as is necessary for the purpose in hand. No other course is possible, if any practical result is to be obtained. To give without knowledge is not only unwise: it is wicked. It is administering an opiate without diagnosis, to quiet pain, instead of ascertaining the nature of the disease in order that it may be cured. That is what we mean by investigation.

Records are kept, to make future investigation of the same applicants unnecessary, in order to assist citizens, churches, and relief agencies of various kinds to help intelligently, discriminatingly, and efficiently. That is the use of registration; and investigation and registration are the first essentials — by no means the only essentials — of the methods of organized charity.

Its aim, however, is relief — relief and restoration — in the interests of the individual who suffers, and in the interests of the community which suffers when any of its members are in distress. Its aim is relief, prompt, efficient, generous. It believes even in unnecessary gifts,— in the sense in which Mr. Riis's gift of a parrot to the old Indian woman, which he describes in the May *Century*, was an unnecessary gift. It believes in immediate relief of precisely the right kind, in the destruction of red tape and the substitution of personal relations, in the use of brains under the promptings of heart, in an honest investigation which leads to useful knowledge of the essential facts. We were warned in the conference yesterday morning that in any statement of the methods of associated charities we should not omit to say that emergent and obvious destitution — actual suffering from hunger and cold — is to be relieved instantly, without waiting for prolonged investigation, in the course of which the hungry may starve and the half-frozen applicant may complete the process. I hesitate to say it. I should like to think that it might be taken for granted; but, since some think it necessary to say it, I say it. The principles and methods of the associated charities permit that a hungry person

shall be fed while he is still hungry, and that one who is without shelter and adequate clothing shall be warmed and sheltered before he is frozen to death. Investigation is good, but it is not a satisfactory substitute for emergent relief.

THE STORY OF JOHN AND MARY BAKER.

BY ERNEST P. BICKNELL,

GENERAL SUPRINTENDENT OF THE BUREAU OF CHARITIES, CHICAGO.

I am going to tell you a little story about John and Mary Baker. I hope, if there is any one here by the name of Baker, that he will not take any offence at this. I told this story just once before to an audience, and a lady named Baker in the back of the room came up and said that she was no relation to the Mrs. Baker of my story.

John and Mary Baker lived in a little country town in Southern Wisconsin. When the World's Fair was being laid out and the great buildings were going up, a young man who was a friend of John Baker went down to Chicago and got a job of work on the Fair grounds. John Baker was a good carpenter; and his friend wrote that everybody could get work at good pay, and that he had better come down.

So John came down, and brought Mary and the two babies. He got work and steady pay. When the Fair was finished, there followed a terrible industrial depression. John Baker lost his job, and had an awful time in getting another. He went up and down, and looked at the half-finished buildings; but the whole town was overbuilt, and there was nothing for him to do. His savings gradually wasted away; and after a while he had to give up his flat for which he was paying fifteen dollars in a nice neighborhood, and move into another place where he could rent rooms for ten dollars in a neighborhood not so good. He went on struggling and doing what he could in the way of odd jobs, and Mary took in a couple of boarders for a while. They managed to get along for a year or two that way.

Times continued hard. John could not make both ends meet, and his savings were all gone. They moved to a place where the rent was six or seven dollars a month, in a dreadful locality. They *had* to move, as they were to be put out of their rooms for non-payment of rent. The third flat into which they moved had no drainage. The rooms were dark, the surroundings vile, the neighborhood terrible. There was no grass-plat and no trees: nothing but a grim and sordid life on a very low plane. Their life began to get bad in this wretched place; and who is there to say a word of condemnation? Mary became cross and irritable and nervous. John's discouragement grew on him; and he got shabby and run down at the heel, and began to drink. After a while it came about that, when he went into a business house to apply for a job, he went in with a hang-dog, sullen air which showed that he did not expect to get a job; and the employer was satisfied at a single glance that he did not want any man like that around.

When this state of affairs had been reached, the eldest girl, Annie, who was now twelve years old, was taken out of school and put to work in a box factory. She began to run about at night, and the mother was too feeble to look after her. The boy, Harry, ran the streets, and fell into bad company, of course. He broke into a vacant house with some boys one day, and stole some lead pipe, and was arrested and sent to the House of Correction. Mary came down with typhoid fever just about the time that the landlord served a notice of eviction. Then a neighbor came to the Associated Charities, and said: "Here is a sad case. The woman is good, but the family is a bad lot. The man is worthless, the boy a criminal."

Now that is what the Bureau of Charities found when its attention was first called to the case of John and Mary Baker. Here was a condition of affairs that not a single charity association on the face of the earth could have cured. No charitable organization ever created, or that ever will be created, could have taken up that situation and have quickly and permanently cured it. A long struggle was inevitable, if this family was to be brought back up the long steep incline down which it had gone. Our ambition to see results, or our failure to read the facts in their true significance, leads us to imagine that we can cure a case like that in a week. It leads some of us to think that by giving an order of groceries we can cure such a case, or that by sending the doctor around and giving Mary some

medicine we have done all that is required. What we need to remember is that this had been a good family, and that it had moved down this incline for five years. It is folly to imagine that anything but long years of care in helping and guiding and lifting would bring it again up to the plane of self-respect that it had once occupied. The Associated Charities could not have done anything by itself; the doctor could not do much; no single society, no agency of any sort, was adequate to cope with that situation.

The Associated Charities of any great city knows not merely one amily like this, but hundreds or thousands. It must take hold of such a family and act as a sun-glass by focussing on it all of the different kinds of relief required to cure its different afflictions,— the doctor and the nurse and the truant officer and the policeman, it may be, and the employer and the landlord and all the rest of them. The Associated Charities is the medium which brings about the adequate relief that is needed.

I want to especially emphasize the point that we must not be impatient. We must not fail to remember that the restoration of people who have got down requires time and is worth time. A family does not fall from a precipice into destitution all at once. It goes down a long incline; and, when it starts back, it must be faced up that incline again. It must be driven and pushed and crowded. It must be subjected to every imaginable influence that will force it back. The effort must be, not intermittent, not hap-hazard, but steady, rational, systematic. The Associated Charities undertakes to be the hand that pushes, the agency that organizes and brings in the thousand forces necessary to effect an adequate, all-around cure.

THE MESSAGE OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES.

BY MISS MARY E. RICHMOND,

GENERAL SECRETARY, SOCIETY FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY, PHILADELPHIA.

I am anxious to address myself to those in this audience who are citizens of Washington. Some of you are householders; and, in that capacity, the appeal for charity is made to you. Some are business men, and charitable demands come to you in the course of your business. Some are church members, and the church is vitally interested in charity. Some are directors of charitable institutions or societies. Some of you are all these things at one and the same time. The Associated Charities of Washington has a message for each and every one of you, then: it can serve you all. Why, it came into existence because there were so many charities already,—so many charitable institutions and societies, so many churches engaged in charitable work, and so many citizens who were charitable in their own way, quite outside of all your organizations. It became necessary to have another charity to prevent all these from tumbling over each other and getting in each other's way.

If an applicant who is unknown to you comes to your door asking help, it seems to me that the first thing you owe to him and to your city is to see that you don't get in the way of others who are in all probability trying to help him, to see that you do not undo their good work. But, you may say, while I am trying to get out of the way, the applicant may starve. The Associated Charities has been at great pains to avoid the bare possibility of that. It has divided this city into a number of divisions; and in each division it has placed a devoted and experienced agent, who gives her whole time to visiting promptly cases of distress. Send the names and addresses of applicants to the society, and see how it works. There is no red tape about it: emergency relief will be supplied by them if you yourself are not willing to reimburse the agent for what she spends, and then the real work of charity, the work of trying to find a way out for each unfortunate, begins. Only the trained worker can take up the broken pieces, see the resources and possibilities lying behind the drunken father, sick mother, and truant boy, realize not only what

the community should do, but what it may be persuaded to do, and so fit the pieces all together again. During this delicate process it so often happens that the wisest plan is all upset by thoughtless charity and well-meant interference. Nothing hurts a trained worker so much as that. We surely owe it to those who give much time and thought that our little time and thought should aid rather than hinder.

Some one said at our section meeting on Friday that in this matter the churches were the chief sinners. In some communities they are; but, wherever the churches have once waked up to the value of co-operation, you get your best help from the churches, because there is so much of the spirit of devotion there. I have in mind one clergyman from whose church some of the best workers came into the local Associated Charities one by one as friendly visitors. He had not been in favor of charity organization at first; but, as he heard more of the work in families done under the society's guidance, he said, "There's no red tape about this, nothing unkind or hard: this is Christian work, and I want more of my people to engage in it." Many of the friendly visitors from his church would tell him about the troubles that they were trying to share and to lighten; and he learned in this way that the poor were often imposed upon by chattel loan companies, that no poor man had a chance of borrowing on reasonable terms. So he called together the business men of his church and others that he could influence, and persuaded them to organize a loan association on a sound business basis, but with a philanthropic motive. This is only one of many instances; for, once aroused to the fact that indiscriminate giving is the cheapest and meanest sort of charity, the church will, of all organized bodies, go farthest in aiding the Associated Charities to establish a higher ideal of service.

Now the Associated Charities in this city will be just what you choose to make it. There is no virtue in the machine and no magic in it. It is simply what you make it. It would be doing you a very bad sort of service if it attempted to relieve you of a burden that is good for you. If it said, You give the society a subscription, and it will do all your charity work for you, it would do this community harm. The duty of being charitable is the duty of each one who has something to give, whether material gifts or time or sympathy or thought. You are poor, indeed, if you have none of these. If you

have some of them, the Associated Charities can help you to turn them to the best account in making the poor and unfortunate really better off. By its painstaking work for individual families and by making its divisions the centre of the highest and most devoted service where workers of all religions may learn from each other, it can develop the charitable spirit of this community.

Then you must consider the wider civic result. By working together over smaller tasks we acquire the habit; and, until the habit becomes fixed, the larger results are never achieved. After twenty years of hard work in organizing the charitable forces of New York, the large Charity Organization Society of that city has led and won a splendid fight against the array of political and business interests that opposed tenement-house reform. The bill just passed by united charitable effort will probably revolutionize living conditions among the poor of the tenements. I beg you to acquire that best of all civic habits, the habit of working together, Catholic, Protestant, Hebrew, people of all churches and people of none, keeping step over the smaller tasks of charity, and then marching forward shoulder to shoulder when the time for larger reforms is ripe.

When this National Conference came to Baltimore eleven years ago, we learned so much from it, although we were inclined at that time to shake our heads and say, "It is easy to do that in New York or Buffalo or Boston, but we never could hope to do it in Baltimore." We were too modest in the wrong way. Now do not be too modest in Washington. Do not think that there is anything good or fine in charitable work that you cannot have here.

May I say a word, in closing, about your society's new secretary? I am a new secretary myself, for I have gone to another city recently where many of the problems are new to me. You cannot realize, unless you have tried it, how difficult it is to take up charity organization work in a new field after working long in an old one. Charity organization means working together. But, where all are strangers, working together is impossible unless the will of the strangers is quite as good as your own. I have known your secretary for years, and I know that you have a good one. Give him your loyal support, and all will be well with the charitable work of Washington.

PERSONAL SERVICE.

BY ROBERT TREAT PAINE,

PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, BOSTON, MASS.

We are always delighted to hear from New York. To it was assigned the duty of describing charity organization. And Chicago has told us about adequate relief. Then we have heard from Baltimore and Philadelphia, the two cities united in Miss Richmond, and have heard about the co-operation of charities. They seem to me three corner-stones, and I don't think we could create a solid structure without the fourth. Mr. Devine has beautifully and intelligently described the basis of the structure. I am going to describe the superstructure. Personal service, friendly visiting, is my theme. Without it, all that you have said and done is of no use. I like to speak with a certain degree of courage, even in the presence of New York, which we admire so much. Perhaps it is not possible in New York to deal with this tremendous task of friendly visiting. But, until you can get that there or in Chicago or here in Washington, organized charity will be partial and incomplete.

We have heard the story from Chicago of the Bakers. We have the same families in Boston. The first Conference I attended we heard that a lady of the society had been in to visit a family of six children in hunger; and there was nothing to do but to go out to the grocer's and buy a bag of flour for a dollar, that the children might have something to eat. The woman said that her husband was out in search of work. The father was really around the corner in a rum-shop, and came home and took that bag of flour and sold it for ninety cents to buy more rum. All the relief in the universe will not settle that problem. So long as society tolerates that rum-shop, it must face the problem with devoted members who are willing to put Christian service into it; and, if they won't accept the task, everything will fail.

Let us follow this case just a step or two further. Perhaps the man has yielded only once or twice or thrice, and is eager to be reinstated; and the friendly visitor can go with that man, or speak to his employer and regain him work. Then no relief is needed, and

thorough investigation has done all that it can do. But the cure will come when the friendly visitor can get that man so that he can be temperate and honest and support his family. Or the case may be worse than that, and he may be addicted frequently to drink; and then the visitor has to go on with patience, following them day by day, perhaps keeping the family together, perhaps breaking it up. The friendly visitor can get the police officer to help, can get the truant officer to help, can get, perhaps, the agent of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children to help; and they all can be brought into that co-operation which Miss Richmond has described. But the friendly visitor is the life and soul of it all. Nothing else will work.

Take another case. I am speaking of actual cases. This other case came in my own experience. The mother said that her husband had gone down to the "Island" forty or fifty times; and she said the last time he came up he took the boots off Johnnie and sold them for liquor, and he took the dress she had bought for Mary and carried that off and sold it. Nothing will meet a problem like that but the persistent work, the devoted attention, love, and faithfulness of the friendly visitor. It cannot be done by hired agents. You must get a large force of friendly visitors. We began this work in Boston twenty-two years ago, and we have now about one thousand friendly visitors. I have studied this work several times in London, and they had not begun to have that number; and they think it hopeless to attempt it. I do not dare ask how many they have in New York: they are making good progress. You have a few here in Washington. You have made a very good beginning. But I wonder if I may speak to the ladies and gentlemen of Washington with the candor with which I have spoken in many states in this country, and ask if every Washington lady and gentleman here present will not be willing to join the Associated Charities, and give of your time but just a little to the help of the society here in Washington, and be willing, not to take a great many families to visit, but whether you will not take one family to whom you can go in the kindness and interest and love of the neighbor, and be to that family a friend, and help them to rise out of the life in which they may be living into a higher plane of morality and virtue and into independent self-support?

I have taken some pretty hard cases, but there are many easy

ones. I use this word "case," because we get into the way of using it, as a physician does. The first case I had was that of a grandfather whose son had been injured in the war when the "Monitor" had just saved our navy; and he had a running sore in his leg, which prevented him from pursuing his vocation as a printer. I speak of this because the least possible thought was required to help the family out of distress. In my second call I took down a note and told this patient to go to the city hospital and be treated. At the end of a fortnight he was cured, and supporting himself and his father and mother and son. That family was in receipt of relief from several sources. The least possible suggestion enabled them to regain their independence.

One of our rules about friendly visitors — and I say this for the purpose of shocking you — is that they are charged never to give physical relief — money, rent, food, or clothing — to the family they visit. Of course there are exceptions in cases of emergency. If the family are actually cold, I have sent in a basket of coals. If they have absolutely no food, an order on the grocery is permissible and proper. Such exigencies are rare. But, as a rule, the friendly visitor is forbidden to give relief, in order to be forced to study all the other methods of aiding the family into permanent and better conditions of living. It is our experience that, if our visitors will go into the home of the poor person, forbidden to give relief, and charged to do everything that is humanly possible to find out other methods, in almost every case the discovery is made and the family is helped. The visitor does not do that alone. We find that it is essential to have a committee, usually from six to fifteen, who meet in the ward where the person lives, say every Monday morning at ten o'clock, often a dozen experienced volunteers with a first-rate trained agent. I see no reason to doubt that a conference of that nature must meet in that district once a week for all time to come. We are not going to escape this problem. The conference is composed of several experts; and then the visitor comes back and reports the problem that she has found,— I say "she," because 90 per cent. of the visitors are ladies. Then the task is for the conference to decide wisely what shall be done. The first thought is what is the best way of helping that family. One person will make one suggestion, and a second person another, a third person another; and fortunate is the conference that has some person of ingenuity, which is a

valuable quality in training agents and in developing this power of personal service. We also like to have a person in every conference who may be called the devil's advocate,— who is expected to oppose everything that is proposed, in order to bring out its merits and make sure that everything is right. The conference helps the friendly visitor, so that he does not go unaided. They are not able to enter families, as skilled physicians, to work cures of magic. It is a task that requires patience and study and thorough devotion. But when they have got it, and when a lady goes into one of these families such as I have described, and will work the wonderful cure such as we have seen over and over again, I wonder if life offers anything better to that person to carry into the next world than the consciousness that she has helped the family out of the slough of degradation into independent, beautiful life.

A recent case that happened in my experience was that of a boy, seventeen years of age, coming out of prison. The friendly visitor said, "I will see that boy before he comes out." The boy was taken from Concord Reformatory and sent to a printing-office, where he instantly began to work, and acquired habits of regularity, taking home his money for three or four months. And then the visitor heard that the boy had struck, and it seemed as if he were going to the bad. But it turned out that the boy had found some other place at better wages; and the visitor helped him, and he is now a self-respecting citizen.

I would like to mention another case, where there was a widow with nine children, and the eldest was fourteen years of age. The father had been in the army, and was getting some state aid, the St. Vincent de Paul was aiding,— a case in which without adequate treatment the children would go to the well-known and benevolent people of the city and tell their story, and would instantly get more than they needed. They would learn the art of telling their story with ingenuity and success; and the harvest would be large and the reward would be sure, and all chance of virtue would be wrecked. That family was put in the charge of a single person, and the result of it was that the family were obliged to allow none of the children to beg. All the relief that was needed was given by one hand secretly to the mother, so that neither the children nor the neighbors knew it. That went on for several years. The eldest boy was educated to the harness trade, and the eldest daughter went into Prang's art studio;

and the children came in order until they were perfectly independent, and every child had turned out well. Let me ask you to note the two methods in treating that family. Our familiar motto of Boston is, "Not alms, but a friend," because, when the friend comes, and they need relief, they must have it. If it goes on long, we call it a pension; but it all comes out of the friendly relation. Is there any greater pleasure in life than to have that wonder wrought by constant friendly care rather than to leave them to the old-fashioned method of getting a little relief from one source and from another source? and, perhaps, half of the children would have been ruined.

I am aware that I am speaking to a large number of people in our Conference who are far more familiar than I am with the societies in which they are engaged; but, if they are not interested in this theme of mine as friendly visitors, then I am going to ask them if they will not carry home a few of the seeds I am attempting to sow, and establish in their own neighborhood the personal system of friendly visitors.

To you, ladies and gentlemen of Washington, I commend this cause from the bottom of my heart. I feel sure that the best civilization of our cities rests upon our being able to find a large number of the cultivated men and women of each city who are willing to give of their personal service in a wise and devoted way to help up their wretched neighbors.

XIII.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Thursday, May 9, 1901.

The twenty-eighth session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was opened on Thursday evening, May 9, in the Foundry Methodist Church, Washington, D.C. After an organ voluntary, Mr. B. T. Janney, chairman of the Local Committee, called the great audience to order. Prayer was offered by Rev. L. D. Wilson. After a solo by Mr. C. F. Hall, "Lest we forget," Mr. Janney spoke as follows: —

Ladies and Gentlemen,— As we proceed on our pathways through this life, we meet all sorts and conditions of men, women, and children, many of whom are suffering from some cause or other, the fault of themselves or of some one else. Yet nine-tenths of us probably pass by on the other side without even stopping to think whether our efforts are necessary for the release of our suffering fellow-men. But it is gratifying to know that there are those who do not pass on the other side, but who go very close to suffering humanity, spending their lives, their time, and their means in trying to benefit others, in making them happier and more comfortable. It is particularly gratifying to know that these philanthropic people have united together in an association known as the National Conference of Charities and Correction, organized twenty-seven years ago. More than a year ago the Committee on Charities and Correction of this city was instructed by the Board of Trade to use every effort to induce the National Conference of Charities and Correction to come to Washington. The invitation was extended and accepted, and the National Conference of Charities and Correction is now here, we are glad to say. To the members of that Conference I would say that Washington is glad to greet you. Just how welcome

you are will be told by Mr. H. B. Macfarland, president of the Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia, whom I take pleasure in introducing to you.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME BY MR. H. B. MACFARLAND.

Mr. President and Members of the Conference,— I am proud to offer you the greetings of the government of the District of Columbia. It is a cordial welcome, I assure you. Yet an official welcome, however it may be phrased, must sound formal. Therefore, I hasten to add that all that is best in the District of Columbia, as this fine audience attests, heartily welcomes this American congress of philanthropy. The national capital, rich in generous men and women, who give themselves as well as their time and money for the uplifting of their less fortunate brothers and sisters, realizes that, in welcoming you, it will get more than it can give. Many of us have been waiting for your coming with keenness of expectation such as we are not wont to feel in this city of conventions, where we are always welcoming guests. We remember the instruction and inspiration which came to us from your former visit in 1885, when the Conference was young, and all that we have obtained since, from time to time, through the increasing usefulness of this Conference, which has gradually gained international reputation and influence. No community in the United States owes more to the influence of this Conference, direct and indirect, than the District of Columbia. That we have now an organization of our public charity which, though incomplete, can be exhibited to you without regret, is due to the persistent efforts of men and women, members of your Conference,— our representatives in it,— imbued with the principles of the modern philanthropy. It is safe to say that they never would have persisted to success, if they had not felt that they had the sympathy and support of the members of this Conference, all of them, in their turn, struggling, perhaps under similar conditions, to advance the same principles in other places. Thanks to these noble spirits, our arrangements for the outdoor relief of the poor have been raised to the plane of the best systems; and through our Associated Charities, and its companion, the Central Relief Committee, our citizens now accomplish twice as much good, at half as much expense, as in former days. The community has learned, through the success of these agencies, that the new philanthropy, combining knowledge with love, striving for prevention rather than mere mitigation, and promoting self-help rather than helplessness, is at once more beneficent and more business-like than the old hit-or-miss, ignorant, and sometimes unlovely charity.

It is learning gradually, I believe, that the same principles can be and ought to be applied to public institutional charity. The Board of Children's Guardians, to whose care a constantly increasing num-

ber of dependent children has been committed since its creation in 1892, has demonstrated by self-sacrificing and intelligent fidelity that it ought to have the care of all children dependent upon the public bounty. In the process of evolution came the Board of Charities, which since last July has had supervision of all charitable institutions supported in whole or in part by public funds, and which, under the act of Congress creating it, is to work out an harmonious system of institutional relief for all the dependants on the public. Its members, five of the busiest and best men in the District of Columbia, who have helped to make the Associated Charities and the Central Relief Committee what they are, are working day and night at the great task set before them. Its accomplishment will be their monument.

All this, and more, in spirit and in purpose we gratefully acknowledge as due to the teachings of your Conference, even though it has always been a true conference and has never adopted resolutions, or tried to fasten its members to any platform of theories. We are, therefore, grateful for the past, and for what we are about to receive are already thankful. We expect to learn from you in a few days what it has taken you years to learn, and with it your latest experiences, your latest suggestions, your latest warnings. We are not of those who are satisfied with a blissful ignorance or wrapped up in a conceited self-satisfaction. We want the best, and we are ready to listen that we may get the best. If you, who are the leaders in the philanthropic work of this hemisphere, out of myriad and varied experiences, continental in extent, could not teach us something new about our philanthropic work, it would be remarkable. But we know very well that you can, and we await with eager interest the unfolding of the truths you have brought to each other and are to share with us.

Mr. Janney read several invitations to the Conference to visit the government insane asylum and other places.

Mr. JANNEY.— This Conference is not a local affair : it is national. Its membership is as broad as its objects and its efforts. We had hoped this evening to have an address from Hon. Lyman J. Gage, Secretary of the Treasury, representing the President of the United States. In his enforced absence, I will read to you a letter from President McKinley, addressed to Mr. Macfarland, as follows : —

My Dear Sir,— The cordial invitation which your committee extended me to be present at the meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction in this city May 9 is most gratifying, and I very much regret that absence from Washington at that time will prevent me from attending the Conference.

Organized charity is doing a great work. Every encouragement and every possible assistance should be extended to those engaged in this noble undertaking, and their reward is in the knowledge that their effort uplifts man.

Please extend to the Conference all good wishes for a most successful meeting.

Very sincerely yours,

(Signed) WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

Hon. HENRY B. MACFARLAND.

After a solo, "Abide with me," by Miss Anna Bell Carpenter, the meeting was turned over to the President of the Conference, Mr. John M. Glenn, of Baltimore, Md.

THE PRESIDENT.— *Ladies and Gentlemen,*— I have the honor of introducing to you one of the best-known members of our Conference, Mr. Alexander Johnson, of Indiana, who will make the response on behalf of the Conference to the cordial welcome we have received.

RESPONSE TO WELCOME, BY MR. ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

Mr. President, Gentlemen of the Committee, Ladies and Gentlemen,— I feel much honored by Mr. Glenn's choice in inviting me to respond to the welcome to Washington. It is a great pleasure to come again to this city, as we remember the extremely pleasant visit we had here sixteen years ago. Since then the Conference has been going all over the country, to the Far West and the Far South; and we have just begun on our second round of visits. Washington is the second city where it has paid a second visit. New York was the first; but New York had to wait twenty-five years, Washington only sixteen. Those who have been long members of the Conference must be much gratified at the address made by Mr. Macfarland. I do not remember in an experience of sixteen years hearing an address which showed such intelligent appreciation of the work of the Conference, and the possibilities that lie before it, as were shown in the address of the president of the Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia. It looks as though the good seed sown here sixteen years ago had borne abundant fruit.

We hope to see in this great city — the most beautiful city in the world, I think — the very best administration of charities, the very best institutions of all kinds. The institutions of the District of Columbia ought to be an example to the United States, they ought to be an example to the world. And, if we can in any way help to make them so, it will be doing for ourselves also, because, as American citizens, we feel that every stone and stick, every portion of this beautiful district, is ours. We are all citizens here. This is our city as well as yours.

We thank you for the splendid welcome you have given us, and for the splendid audience, largely composed of residents here. Such an audience does us good. It warms our hearts to look into the faces of the old friends whom we first met sixteen years ago. I suppose the resident population changes rapidly, but I see some here whom we learned to know and love first as members of that Conference.

Again we thank you for the unalloyed pleasure you have given us by your cordial welcome.

The President asked the members of the Conference to select members of the Committee on Time and Place, one from each state or territory represented. The following committees were announced:

The Committee on Organization.— Charles R. Henderson, Illinois, chairman; Mrs. Emily E. Williamson, New Jersey; Homer Folks, New York; Michel Heymann, Louisiana; Alexander Johnson, Indiana; John T. Mallalieu, Nebraska; C. L. Stonaker, Colorado.

Committee on Resolutions.— Philip C. Garrett, Pennsylvania; Lucius C. Storrs, Michigan; John W. Willis, Minnesota.

THE PRESIDENT.— I should like to express to the chairmen of the committees my appreciation of the work that they have done for this Conference. The success of a conference depends largely upon the work of the chairmen of the committees. Your chairmen this year have done admirable work, and it has been the greatest pleasure to work with them. I should like also to thank the committee on organization of last year for naming such helpful committees.

I have only one word to say to the Conference as a whole; and that is, I hope you will recollect that I am your servant to do what I can for you, and I hope that you will allow me to do what I can. I am here solely to make a success of the Conference so far as possible.

To those who have not previously attended the Conference I would say that this is a conference, not a convention. We do not pass resolutions, we do not determine policies. Our object in coming here is to learn. The key-note of our purpose is humility. We come to learn better how to solve the very difficult problems that arise constantly before charity workers. New questions are always coming up, and old ones are revived which have not yet been solved. We are conscious of the danger of error and failure. Therefore, we come together to compare notes, one part of the work with another, that we may go back with fresh energy, knowledge, inspiration, and devotion to the work in our respective states.

At the beginning of the Conference we should get a proper perspective of the whole work, not thinking of any one department, but of charity work as a whole. We also wish to get our relative position with reference to work similar to that in which we ourselves are interested. We are a part of a great movement going on throughout the world, but we are only a part of that movement. We are not the whole of it, yet it is not able to get on without us. I refer to the great movement for the betterment of social conditions.

I have felt it would be well at the beginning of our meeting to hear from men who understand this movement,— men not engaged in strictly charitable lines, but who stand in practical relation to it. We are therefore to listen to two addresses, and the first of these will be given by Rev. Dr. S. G. Smith.

Dr. Smith's address will be found on page 12.

An address by Mr. Jacob A. Riis (page 18) closed the session.

Before the meeting at the church an informal reception to the delegates was held at the Ebbitt House under the auspices of the Local Committee of One Hundred, which had charge of the preparations for the Conference.

SECOND SESSION.

Friday morning, May 10.

The second general session was called to order by the President at 9.30 A.M. Announcements of section meetings were made. An invitation to visit the jail was read.

Adjourned at 10 A.M. for section meetings.

Section Meetings.—Juvenile Reformatories (superintendents only). Needy Families in their Homes, "Co-operation," page 372.

THIRD SESSION.

Friday night, May 10.

The third general session was called to order by the President at 8 P.M. A letter was read by the Secretary from the rector of the Catholic University of America, Rev. Thomas J. Conaty, inviting the members of the Conference to a reception to be given in honor of His Eminence, Cardinal Martinelli. On motion of Mr. Robert Treat Paine, of Boston, it was voted to accept the invitation with much pleasure.

Mr. Charles F. Weller invited the members of the Conference to avail themselves of the opportunities offered by the office of the Associated Charities for writing, typewriters, etc. The announcements of Sunday services in the different churches and the names of the members of the Conference who would speak were made by Dr. F. H. Wines.

The subject for the evening was Destitute and Neglected Children, Mr. Amos W. Butler, secretary of the Board of State Charities, Indiana, chairman. The report was read by Mr. Butler (page 204), who took charge of the discussion.

A paper on "Neglected Children of Neglected Communities" was read by Professor Charles R. Henderson, of Chicago (page 219). The discussion was opened by Mr. Homer Folks, of New York.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. Homer Folks, New York.— In the early part of the century orphan asylums may have been a necessity, in order to secure elementary education for orphan children, the public-school system not having been established. Now, however, if any institutions are needed, they are not orphan asylums, but homes for neglected children and for certain classes of half-orphans and other children who cannot be placed in families. The easiest problem of all is the orphan. There are no parents to interfere. They can be placed out early and find permanent homes in families, becoming, in very truth, parts of those families.

But there is another point to be considered in the care of neglected and destitute children one or both of whose parents are living. When we remove children from the care of their own parents, we ought to be pretty certain that we are going to do the work better than the parents would have done. The parents may be poor and shiftless and not very wise; but, unless we charitable agencies are better than they are in all of these respects, perhaps, after all, the child's position may not be improved by our well-intended interference. As I think of the great number of children, about one hundred thousand, under the care of charitable institutions in the United States, I do not feel altogether easy about them. In the ordinary, natural order of things, one family is supposed to have its hands full in taking care of a few children. The naïveté with which some organizations take charge of hundreds of children is surprising. I wonder whether they realize that they have taken unto themselves all the responsibilities that otherwise would rest on hundreds of parents and hundreds of homes. In two directions, it seems to me that there is special danger of neglect on our part to perform those duties which the parents would have performed more or less efficiently. The first is in teaching the children to do some particular thing to earn their own living. Children that grow up in their own homes do in some way get a start. They do what their fathers did or what a neighbor did. They get hold of some sort of a job, and manage to get on in one way or another.

Secondly, when the child has reached the age at which he leaves the care of the orphan asylum or the placing-out agency, how much thought and effort are given to the difficult job of getting him started in life,— of finding him something to do and some proper place to live? Those are matters to which a parent naturally gives a good deal of attention. He may do it from selfish motives, but it is one of the things that is in his mind from the time the child is born till it

leaves his home. What will the child do? What kind of an opening can he provide for it? Isn't it often the case that we charitable agencies have a blind faith with regard to the children leaving our care? We regret that the child has to leave us. We are almost sorry that he is getting to be twelve or fourteen or sixteen, but we trust that he will fare well. The door closes and he is gone, and we trust that he will do wisely and take care of himself; but where he will live and just what he will do are too often unsolved questions about which he gets no help from us. We ought, of course, to look forward to the time when we shall not have all these neglected children to care for. I do not believe that the Golden Age lies behind us. It lies in the future, I hope; and yet sometimes, when I look closely at conditions as they now exist, and try to see whether the state of the tenement-house districts is on the whole getting better or worse, I confess that that Golden Age, when we shall no longer have destitute and neglected children to care for, gets far away in the future, and becomes less and less distinct, so that I almost wonder if it is there at all. I would not dare to say that the conditions in New York City are any better than they were twenty or twenty-five years ago. Splendid things have been done and are being done for children, but think of the bad things that are now done that were unknown ten years ago. Think of all the new and ingenious ways in which greed and vice press closer and closer upon the tenement-house children. I am afraid we shall have to give serious attention for a long time to come to the problem of the best care of destitute and neglected children by charitable agencies.

Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, Superintendent Bureau of Charities, Chicago.— At a risk of repeating in a poor way some of the things which Dr. Henderson has said in a very good way, it may be of interest to speak in greater detail about the juvenile court law which we have in Chicago. It seems to us who have tried it that it may be good for all large cities and perhaps, after a while, for small cities.

The juvenile court law stands on the foundation described last night by Mr. Riis when he said that the poorest possible use of a boy is to put him in jail. We are trying by this law not only to keep boys and girls out of jail, but to so change conditions in which they live, to get hold of them in such a way and at such an early age, as to keep the need of putting them in jail or anywhere else out of consideration. The juvenile court is held on certain days, and all the cases on those days are of children. There is nothing to suggest crime. The children are brought into a large room where sits the judge, who is a great-hearted, kindly man. With the boys and girls come fathers and mothers and probation officers, and sometimes police officers. They are brought down in front of the judge; and all formality is laid aside, all stiffness and convention.

A lad is brought forward, and the judge leans over the desk and

asks, "What is your name, my boy?" The boy begins to feel better. He tells his name and tells about the thing that has happened; and the friends or neighbors or probation officer or police officer come round, and this person is asked and that one, and in a few minutes the judge is enabled, without technicalities, to get an acccurate impression of the whole situation. He talks it all over with the boy's father and mother, and says to them, "Why have you let this boy steal or run away from home or do whatever he has done that is wrong? What is the cause of all this?" And the mother says she does not know what made him such a bad boy, and the father does not know. Finally, a conclusion is reached.

Then the judge says to the boy: "Here is this lady, who is a probation officer. I am going to put you in her charge. You are to go home and attend school every day and behave as well as you know how; and this lady is coming to see you frequently, and you must go and see her." And the judge says to the father and mother: "This lady has been appointed to look after this boy, and she will help you to do the right thing by him, and she will come into my court and report how he is getting on, just what he is doing at work or in school, or whatever it is; and, if he gets on all right for some months, nothing more will be done about this trouble into which he has fallen. But if he doesn't get on all right, but continues to steal, or be a truant, or stay out nights, or be bad generally, this lady will tell me about it; and the boy will have to come back, and I may have to send him to the Reform School, away from you entirely." So the boy goes home, and the probation officer visits him in his home and makes practical suggestions there, and makes her reports to the judge; and, generally, the boy does not come back.

The law has been in operation in Chicago for a year and ten months, and in that time 4,200 children have gone through the court. Of that number, 2,200 have been sent home on probation. Of these 2,200 who have gone home on probation, 18 per cent. have gone back into court; but 82 per cent. have behaved themselves and been no further source of trouble. Under our old law, as they came into court, they would have, in a large percentage of cases, been punished in one way or another. Had not this probation system been provided, so that they could be sent home and yet be under the supervision of the court through its officers, they would have had to be dealt with in some other way. They would have had to go to the Reform School, which is part of the house of correction, or to some other institution where they had no business to be, and where the possibility of their reforming and going home better than when they went in would have been very small.

We have the city of Chicago cut up into twelve districts. The chief probation officer, who is an officer of the court, has charge of the whole probation system. Under him are twelve district probation officers, one for each of these twelve districts. Under the district offi-

cers are their assistants, volunteer workers, who each look after one boy or girl, or two or three, and report to the district probation officer. Thus we are building up a system that covers the city with intensely interested and devoted people, who look after the boys and girls, and see that the law is carried out as well as possible in every way.

Boys and girls are no longer taken to police stations. In the old way the boy was dragged off to the police station, was brought before the grand jury, tried in criminal court, declared guilty, sentenced by the judge, and sent to prison. Now we have a law which makes it possible to deal effectively with a child which has started wrong without going through these grim formalities which brand him a criminal. We are able to send him home and into a proper way of life, or, if not into his own home, into a good institution, where he will get back on to the right track without having been called a criminal.

Mr. Jerome B. Clark, superintendent of the bureau for placing out children in Cuba, was asked to speak.

Mr. JEROME B. CLARK.— The organization of charities in Cuba is still very young. In fact, the first attempt to deal with them in a systematic way was made in March of last year, when Major-general Wood, the military governor of the island, signed what is known as the Charities Decree, or Charities Law. This law created a department of charities which controls and manages everything of a charitable nature in the island, according to the rules and regulations embodied in this same law. At that time there were a number of small orphan asylums situated throughout the island, some of which had been started by the Cuban municipalities and some by the Red Cross and other societies from this country, all of which gradually came to the state for support. Now there had never been anything of this kind in Cuba before the war. They had very few asylums and the majority of those were foundling institutions.

These new asylums had been started simply as a means of sheltering and feeding the enormous number of children made destitute by the war; and the buildings and surroundings were in very few cases at all suitable for the purpose for which they were being used. As the charities became organized and conditions began to improve, it at once became a question as to what was to be done with these asylums. At this point, Mr. Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association of New York, came to our rescue, and, as it has since been proved, solved the problem, along with a great many other good things which he has done for us. The Charities Law, of which I have spoken, contained provision for breaking up these small asylums, and also for a system of placing out children by the state, with state supervision, until they were sixteen years old.

At the time this work began, there were over thirty-one of these

small asylums located in all parts of the island: *to-day we have not one.* We have four large state asylums and a fine municipal asylum.

These 31 asylums had 1,580 inmates; and, of those 1,580 inmates who one year ago were all charges on state funds, to-day there are 93 who are charges on state funds. Now I will tell you what we did with them. Of the 1,580, 1,177 were returned to parents or relatives, but in every case only after an investigation which would show us that the child would be cared for properly. In some cases we maintained supervision over them for a time, so there would be no doubt on the matter.

The rest of the children, or 310, have been placed out in families, and remain under our supervision. Our supervision is maintained by personal visits of agents every four months, by reports from the teachers of the schools the children are attending, and by correspondence with the family and, in some cases, with the child itself.

At the time these asylums were broken up, they were costing the state on an average $25,000 per month; and the condition of the buildings in which they were located had made necessary estimates for repairs which would have cost from $500 to $3,000 for each of the 31 asylums. As near as I could get the figures for each institution, the repairs for all would have cost about $40,000 if the plans had been carried out.

The system of placing out children is entirely new to Cuba, and has been subject to very severe criticism; but the good results we have been able to show, and a demonstration of the advantages which the children receive, have practically done away with all opposition. We have been able to show them the advantages of a normal family life over that of institutional life by the various experiments we have made with girls from our Beneficencia, one of the largest foundling asylums in Cuba. These children come in as babies, and are not permitted to go out until they are twenty-three years of age. They now have a number of these oldest girls, and we have tried almost in vain to do something for them. We have tried to find employment for them, but in nine cases out of ten they come back as being of no use. We have tried to make nurses of them by placing them in some of our nurses' schools, but they could not learn. They tried to have them do cleaning, etc., in the hospitals; but they could not do that unless somebody was right there with them all the time, to show them. Yet these girls were old enough to be self-supporting, and should know enough to care for themselves properly. But they don't.

Of course, this is an extreme case, and you could find no parallel in this country; but I think that this object-lesson which we can show on the one side compared with the object-lesson we can show of our placed-out children will serve to prove that a child is better off in a family home than in an institution. At least, that seems to be the growing impression in Cuba.

Mr. GLENN.— I have a friend in Baltimore who was interested in a baseball team whose members were working-boys. His interest in the boys aroused his interest in their neighborhood; and he saw the necessity for playgrounds and athletic grounds for the young, and a place where their elders could get a breath of fresh air.

He got the people in the neighborhood interested, and secured the aid of the newspapers of the city. And so, chiefly through his enthusiastic persistence and power of compelling co-operation, appropriations were granted by the city for two small parks in South Baltimore. And this was done by a man without money or special influence. I mention the incident as proof of what can be done by a person with only sense and the right spirit. It should encourage us all to try to do likewise.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Saturday morning, May 11.

The fourth general session was called to order by the President at 9.30 A.M.

Mr. HASTINGS H. HART.— Last June I offered my resignation as General Secretary, because all of my time and strength are needed for my present work in Chicago. I have continued to hold the office until the present meeting of the Conference at the request of the President and Executive Committee. I must now again tender my resignation for the same reason. I have long been convinced that this Conference ought to have as secretary a man who can devote the whole of his time to the work. I made a recommendation to this effect to the Executive Committee; and, after a full discussion, both in Chicago and New York, it was voted to appoint a committee of five to take steps to secure subscriptions, amounting to $5,000 annually, for the payment of the salary, office expenses, and travelling expenses of such a secretary. The committee consists of John M. Glenn, Robert Treat Paine, William R. Stewart, Mrs. E. E. Williamson, Charles R. Henderson, General R. Brinkerhoff, and H. H. Hart. This committee sent to each member of the Conference a copy of the following circular:—

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Office of the President, Baltimore, Md.

At a recent meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Dr. H. H. Hart, the General Secretary of the Conference, offered his resignation for the reason that his regular work, as superintendent of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, demands his entire strength.

This matter was carefully considered by the Executive Committee at Chicago, February 15, and at an adjourned meeting in New York, February 19. At these two meetings there were present 17 out of the 24 members of the committee. The following resolution was unanimously adopted: —

"*Resolved*, That, in the judgment of this committee, it is expedient to secure a general secretary who can give his whole time to the work of the Conference, and that an effort should be made immediately to secure an annual subscription of $5,000 to carry out that plan. This amount to provide for salary, travelling expenses, and office expenses."

The following persons were appointed a committee to take steps to secure the necessary subscriptions: John M. Glenn, chairman *ex officio*, Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Hastings H. Hart, Charles R. Henderson, Robert Treat Paine, William R. Stewart, Emily E. Williamson.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction ought to have as general secretary a man who can devote the whole of his time to the work. The National Conference, which is the largest charity organization in the world, ought to have at least as much service as would be given to a charity organization society in a city of 25,000 inhabitants.

The duties of the general secretary would be: —

(1) To conduct a much larger correspondence with the members of the Conference than is possible under our present arrangements. There is a constant stream of inquiries respecting charity organization work, work of public institutions, legislation, sociological literature, university work, etc., to which the general secretary can now attend only imperfectly.

(2) To attend the meetings of the twenty annual state conferences of charities and correction, to assist in making them efficient, and to assist in the organization of new conferences. This work tends to increase the efficiency of the state conferences and to put the several states into touch with each other in a helpful way.

(3) To assist in formulating and perfecting legislation touching state boards of charities, public institutions, dependent and delinquent children, etc. Admirable work along this line has been done independently by secretaries of the different state boards of charities. The general secretary is frequently in receipt of requests for assistance in this line, which he has been unable to render.

(4) To edit the National Bulletin of Charities and Correction, which could be made a much more valuable medium if more time could be given to it.

(5) To secure fuller and more valuable information respecting the charitable and correctional work of the several states. This can be done only by correspondence with several different people in each state and by examination of public reports, instead of relying on a single corresponding secretary in each state.

(6) To give a much larger amount of time to the organization of the Conference, relieving the president of the Conference of detailed correspondence.

The members of the Conference cannot do a better thing for the progress of charities in the country than to provide means to carry on this work.

Blanks for subscriptions are enclosed. An early reply will be appreciated.

JOHN M. GLENN,
ROELIFF BRINKERHOFF,
HASTINGS H. HART,
CHARLES R. HENDERSON,
ROBERT TREAT PAINE,
WILLIAM R. STEWART,
EMILY E. WILLIAMSON,
Committee.

The PRESIDENT. — As a result, $850 has been pledged toward the expenses and salary of a permanent general secretary, in accordance with the plan laid out by the Executive Committee. The matter now rests with the Conference. The question is entirely

impersonal, having no reference to the employment of any particular person.

The following motion was offered by Rev. C. N. Pond, of Oberlin, Ohio: —

Resolved, That we receive with exceeding regret the resignation of our experienced and successful Secretary, Mr. Hastings H. Hart, and that we extend to him our sincerest thanks for the devoted service which he has rendered.

Resolved, further, That we approve the steps hitherto taken by the Executive Committee with reference to the appointment of a regularly employed and paid secretary, and that we recommend that the incoming Executive Committee earnestly proceed with measures in the same direction.

The motion was seconded.

Mr. J. R. BRACKETT.— Will Mr. Pond divide his motion? If he will do so, we can vote first on accepting Mr. Hart's resignation and thanking him for his excellent service, and afterward on the other matter.

Mr. Pond accepted the suggestion, and the first part of the motion was adopted unanimously.

The second portion of Mr. Pond's motion was taken up, and after some discussion, which was continued Monday morning, was lost.

The report of the Committee on Legislation concerning Charities was made by the chairman, William W. Folwell, LL.D., of Minnesota (page 112). The discussion was opened by Dr. F. H. Wines.

DISCUSSION ON LEGISLATION CONCERNING CHARITIES.

Dr. F. H. WINES.— Professor Folwell takes a sound position when he claims that the federal government is committed by a long line of precedents to the policy of the collection and diffusion of information upon scientific and social questions. The Smithsonian, which is an almost unique institution, the gift of a single benevolent, far-sighted, and wise individual, has been a great centre of information, not only for this country, but for the world, in a scientific sense. If the government can spend so much money as it does upon that institution and upon other scientific bureaus of the government maintained wholly at the federal expense, may we not now insist that the time has come when the social sciences should have equal recognition? They are beginning to be recognized as having a legitimate and proper place in the field of scientific investigation and research, and it seems to me that with the opening of this new century the gov-

ernment might wisely extend to their development its fostering care. This is another line of argument in favor of the general scheme proposed by the committee.

For a long time it seemed to me that an institution analogous to the Smithsonian, but concerning itself with social instead of purely scientific questions, might be established by private beneficence. There is a field in this direction which American citizens who have accumulated great fortunes and are anxious to find an outlet for their benevolence might well occupy. I do not see why Mr. Rockefeller or Mr. Carnegie or others we might name, instead of founding a new hospital or a new college or university, might not endow, let us say, the National Conference of Charities and Correction. It would take but a small fund, comparatively, to put this Conference at the beginning of the century on a basis which would insure the continuation of its work and its influence for the next fifty or a hundred years. We do not need much. Our expenses are not large. Here in Washington we have collected about three thousand dollars for the purpose of making provision for the local expenses of this session. Our publications do not cost a great deal. We are now obliged to print only one volume where we should print two or three. It would not cost more than four or five thousand dollars annually to meet our fixed expenses. A fund that would give us an income of ten thousand dollars annually would place this Conference beyond the necessity of begging for contributions for its support or even from its members in the form of annual dues. I wish with all my heart that some rich man would take note of this suggestion and do what I have suggested. But, apart from the question of the Conference of Charities, there is the other question of the duty and obligation of the government. I have no doubt as to that in my own mind, but it has always seemed to me that the Census Office might be able to fulfil the purpose of an institution for the diffusion of knowledge on social questions analogous in some respects to the Smithsonian Institute. The government devotes a great deal of money to the development of the natural sciences and of economic science. In the Census Office the government has an agency which, if it were disposed, it could utilize for the study of all these social questions, not only from a statistical point of view, but from the historical and legal point of view. I regard the collection of such statistics as equal in value to the other statistics which are collected.

If the Census Bureau should be made, as I think it ought to be made, a permanent bureau and charged with those duties, the Census Office might include as one of its departments a bureau of charities and a bureau of correction. There is a great deal of work that ought to be done in that direction. We ought to have an annual census of the population of our institutions, a complete list of our institutions, and to know from year to year the changes which occur in them. We ought to collect the judicial statistics of this country, the statis-

tics of crime. Those collected by the government are of comparatively little value, because they refer only to the number of prisoners at any one time in custody. We all know that the criminal class in custody is only a small percentage of the whole number. The crimes that are punished are only a small per cent. of those that are committed. The only reliable figures must be obtained, as in Great Britain, from judicial records, by a national agency.

So with the identification of criminals. The Bertillon system is one of the greatest contributions to the security of society by means of the prevention and punishment of crime. But it has never accomplished what it might accomplish, because it is in the hands of local authorities, the officers of prisons and the police. There should be a central national registry office at Washington.

There is an immense amount of work for a national bureau of charities and correction to do. If the Census Office were to assume the character I suggest, this government would soon take the lead in sociological, benevolent, philanthropic, and correctional work, as it is taking it in respect to finance, political organization, education, and the administration of government. These are thoughts which lie very near my heart, and which, I trust, will meet with your acceptance and approval.

Mrs. R. C. Lincoln, Boston.— It seems to me that the admirable report which has been presented is strictly in line with the subject which we were discussing at the business meeting this morning. I think it far more important to have such a bureau in Washington than to try to extend the business of this Conference by the best paid secretary. This is a matter of national importance, and should be placed on a permanent basis.

Mr. E. T. Devine, New York.— After careful consideration of some of the objections that naturally suggest themselves to such a plan, I am personally of the opinion that the recommendation of the committee is wise, and that it would be desirable to carry it into effect by legislative act of Congress. I suppose the duty of the bureau would not be executive in any sense, but rather educational and statistical. When I say educational, I do not mean that it should stand for the advocacy of particular methods as distinct from other methods that might possibly be as good or better, merely because they commend themselves to the men at the head of the bureau, but that it should be informing. One of the chief duties of such a bureau would be the collecting of information in regard to the experience of foreign countries, in regard to correctional and charitable endeavor, and the wider social endeavor which we do not think of as strictly correctional or charitable,— old-age pensions, insurance schemes, the plan of insurance against non-employment, etc., which have been carried out in other countries,— France, Austria, Switzerland, Germany. This information may be accessible to students in the university, but the facts concerning them should be made avail-

able in English. A bureau of this kind could do a great deal of such work, and thus perform a valuable service. For this reason the establishment of such a bureau would be a wise measure.

When the question of drafting an act for the establishment of such a bureau arises, it should receive the very careful attention of some of the most experienced and wise members of this Conference and of the people who have seen the actual operation of similar acts governing bureaus analogous to that which we propose to establish. Probably the one by which the Bureau of Labor was established would form the best precedent for us. Everything would depend on the kind of man selected to be at the head; and the question naturally arises, Would the man selected to preside over such a bureau be a charity expert or a politician? Should we get a good man in charge of the bureau? While I am in favor of a good man, I wish to say that there are some advantages in appointing a bad man, using good and bad in the sense of expert and politician; and we ought to discuss this frankly. Of course, the bad man would be in with the machine, and would be able to get things done which the good man might not be able to get done.

There is another advantage. I have heard the president of a university argue seriously that bad men are so unaccustomed to the praise of decent citizens that they are sometimes glad to render an important service to such citizens, and that you can often get important reforms through them that you might not through good men, who are so accustomed to the approval of decent men that it does not mean so much to them. There is, therefore, an advantage in having in office one for whom it would be a great thing to get good things done. It would be so novel an experience for him that he would listen to such suggestions as you and I might make. I am not convinced that we do want a "bad" man; but, if we pick out a charity expert, we should have one who has also political ability. He must have a certain grain, just a little show, of badness, of political ability. We want the combination of a man with practical ability and who really knows what people are doing and what ought to be done in charitable and correctional work.

Mr. S. J. Barrows, New York.— As a professional politician, I am much interested in the distinctions Mr. Devine has drawn. Evidently, he thinks that a bad man may be good for something. You know the distinction that is made in the new ethics. The old ethics said that a man must be good, but the new ethics says that he must be good for something. So we have found sometimes — if you will allow me to make this apology for the class to which I belong — that the professional politician has sometimes developed into a very good executive man. But I think it is a little premature to speak of the man until we get the institution. I want to remind you that in the history of the country there has been a good deal of interest in national legislation for charitable objects. Possibly it may have escaped the atten-

tion, or the memory, of many here that there was a time when a bill was passed, went through both Houses of Congress, providing for the spending of a vast amount of money by the national government for the establishment of insane hospitals for the indigent in every state of the United States; and it was only because the President, who has not received as much credit as he should,— Franklin Pierce, — had the good sense to veto that bill that it did not become a law. It is not difficult, if you have the right influence, to develop an interest in the national legislature upon national topics relating to charity and reform. I have been struck with this in Congress,— that anything that appealed to the great heart and sympathy and benevolent sentiment of the people would go right through without much opposition. If you wanted to send a shipload of food to India, reindeer to Alaska, food to those suffering from the Mississippi flood, the House of Representatives always yields to such an appeal made to its heart. But there has been a great advance in appreciation of scientific study and discussion. The Bureau of Labor has done a vast deal in this direction, and could do more if it had larger resources. The Bureau of Education has done much. I am not so much troubled about getting information from abroad. Representing the United States on the International Prison Commission as I do, I can get what I want from abroad. The great trouble is to get anything in this country. A man writes to me from another country, and asks how many murders are committed annually in the United States. How can I tell him? I wrote the other day to a prominent penologist who had asked me that question, and told him that, if he would consult a file of the Chicago *Tribune*, he could get its figures. I sent to the Congressional Library to ask if they could send the figures to him. They said there were twenty-three columns of the Chicago *Tribune*, and it would cost $45 to have them copied. Then I said to my friend: I would not give fifty cents for the whole thing. Those figures are utterly worthless and unreliable so far as statistical accuracy is concerned. I would like to know how many arrests are made in New York annually, but I do not know where to find out. Perhaps some of you might tell me. You might pick it out of the excise reports. Every time that an inquiry comes to me from abroad for certain facts about the United States I have to write to each of the forty-five states to get the facts. We have no central bureau of information. Dr. Wines has outlined how this should be done, by development of the Census Bureau. Let us have some permanent department of the census, and let us have different branches of statistics. Let us have one that does not exist, but which ought to, in the Department of Justice for judicial returns. Let them be co-ordinated, and let information be gathered from all parts of our country. We cannot have any central control; but we certainly can have a central bureau for information, so that we may know what is going on in this country. I hope that some form of expression, if allowable, may be

had from this Conference, and some step taken to bring about such a result as is desired.

Mr. ROBERT TREAT PAINE.—Mr. Barrows has just enforced his argument with reference to that dark and deadly subject of murder. Let me start from the opposite end, and take the data that relate to the subject of children. This is very interesting to all of us, and has been for years. But, if I may ask the question, who of us knows anything about the facts that are of essential value on this problem of the saving of children? I met a lady from Alabama who told me the way that Alabama is sending little children of nine and ten years to the mines, and, when they come out, they are brutalized and ready to commit those terrible crimes of which we hear so much in the South. Now we have no data which will tell us the facts of child life and child labor. We in this Conference know nothing about it in this country, or about anything else. In the little rivalry that sometimes goes on between the little town of Boston and the great metropolis of New York, we think their method of dealing with children is inconceivably bad. We should like to have the facts of the whole country gathered, and put into the form of a census statement. When a Boston gentleman asked President Eliot, of Harvard, what the letters on the outside of the programme for Commencement Day meant, he said, "We keep a Latin professor to interpret them to us." So we should have a professor, an expert, to tell us what the facts are, to interpret them to us. What is the result, for instance, of taking boys of eight or thirteen, and putting them under the friendly care of the officer of the court? We have abolished two great institutions in Massachusetts: Monson, for neglected girls, and the city institution in Boston,—the Marcella Street Home. We should like to have in Massachusetts confirmatory proof as to whether that system is wise or not. We should like to know what is the result in New York of gathering fifteen thousand children and keeping them indefinitely, by which the city of New York has the privilege of keeping them and making money out of them. This Conference cannot do it, but the government can. If we can induce the government to care one iota for the human being as it does for this scientific data, why should we not get the data? This report, which has been so beautifully outlined by the committee, opens the door for hope.

Mr. SIMON WOLF, Washington.—I regret that I did not hear all the report, as I was prevented from being present. But I have heard the discussion, and what I have heard impels me to cry out in opposition to the scheme. I belong to the Board of Charities, and have been in more or less active co-operation with charities for the last forty years. My experience has taught me that it is a grand thing to keep sectarianism out of charitable movements. It is equally important to keep politics out. My own opinion is that, the moment you establish a bureau in this direction, you will have all

the politicians in the United States scrambling for the place. Charity is not a question of politics: it is a question of humanity. If this Conference, national in its scope and national in its usefulness, has accomplished so much in the last twenty-eight years, it can accomplish much more if it is nationalized in the true sense of the term,—not make it an institution controlled by legislation, but an institution which shall speak for each state, and then have half a dozen men or women that we know, whose confidence we enjoy, at the head, and then raise sufficient money to make that bureau national and statistical in every sense of the word.

I have had the distinguished honor of representing our country abroad, and I tell you that we are one hundred years ahead of them in all matters relating to charitable work. I know of what I am speaking. I have been for twenty-five years president of the Hebrew Orphans' Home at Atlanta, and I tell you that we are far ahead of the old country in this direction. If there is anything to learn, we can learn it as American citizens, without the aid of the government. If we do need the aid of government, we can do it by reading the consular reports through the state department and through other departments of the government. I am not in favor of paternalism in charity or in anything connected therewith. I may be wrong; but that is my opinion, based upon the experience of a lifetime, that we need no sectarianism and no paternalism in this organization.

It has grown grandly and splendidly in consequence of the very idea I have announced. I am sure that it will continue to do it, if we will only show a spirit of liberality, and be ready to contribute not only our time, but our means in strengthening the Conference itself.

Rev. Samuel G. Smith.—One of the peculiar privileges of every American citizen is to abuse his government, and then be ready to die for it when occasion offers. I have no sympathy with the popular pessimism which believes that in every public official we have a scoundrel. I believe that if a bureau of charities were to be organized, even if the man had sense enough to secure the appointment, and so get the reputation of being a practical politician, we might also discover that we had the making of a better expert than many who are now occupying that rôle.

I want to emphasize what Dr. Wines has said about the importance of the human sciences. We are beginning to understand that, while we have received knowledge of immense value from the biological sciences, if we want to receive knowledge of equal value, we must apply this data to humanity. The human sciences are the university sciences of the future. Of all the statistics in the world, American statistics are the least trustworthy.

Dr. Wines is a member of the Committee of Fifty to investigate the causes of intemperance. In a Chapter on the Causes of Crime they

discovered that in New York City, where free whiskey flows on every corner, 2 per cent. of crime was the result of drink, but that in the good state of Maine, where prohibition has been a wonderful success for at least a generation, 18 per cent. of the crime is the result of drink. The fact is that neither New York nor Maine has anything to do with it. But it happens that in the Elmira Reformatory there was a gentleman at the head who felt that whiskey was not the cause of all the crime, but a result of it; and that result was 2 per cent.

The same thing is appearing in the matter of insanity. The statistics are not of the slightest value. In England they have a government method for the reports from the insane asylums, which makes uniform statistics for the United Kingdom.

What we want is not less gathering of statistics, but we want a method by which those statistics shall be put forth in an official and comprehensive manner, so that we shall have the same kind of statistics from all states of the Union, so that they shall mean the same thing in each state. This should be one of the functions of the new board. I don't care whether it is to be a separate board of charities or bureau of charities, or whether it be a part of the census; but you must remember that the United States does less from a national centre than any civilized country in the world. Every other civilized country not only has a bureau which collects information, but which manages affairs in its department. We cannot do that in this country. But, since we cannot have a national control, let us have a national organ, through which the wisdom and the result of endeavor in these separate states can be the common property of us all.

Professor FETTER.— Since 1891 this matter has been a proposition before charitable people. It was suggested by Dr. Warner in his report on the District of Columbia. The time did not seem to be ripe for its acceptance. There is a tide in the affairs of charity which must be taken at its flood. The controversy between public opinion and law-making is as well illustrated in charities as in anything else. Some people say that public opinion makes efficient charitable work: other people say, Get wise laws. And between those we have the great mass of practical people who recognize that wise legislation and public sentiment must go hand in hand. There is a moment when a law, if on the statute books, becomes a powerful instrument for good. But there must be the altruistic sentiment, high purpose. Unless that is developed, it is vain to get legislation. So, for instance, wonderful success was obtained in one of our Western states, and a board of charity secured and one of the best reports presented of any state. But the next year public sentiment did not support it, and that Board of Charities finished its glorious career. In another state, public sentiment not being active in supporting it, it has sunk into the hands of the politicians; and we find the members of the board recommending their own abolition. On the other hand,

we find the example which has been shown in New York State. A proposition was made to substitute a single paid official for an unpaid board. Great opposition was aroused, and crowds of pilgrims went to Albany. Public sentiment was aroused, and the backward step was not taken.

Since 1891 ten years have passed which are remarkable years in the history of American charities. This Conference has done a great work throughout this country. State boards and state conferences have been organized; and general progress, so far as it can be made by organized effort, has been made. It seems to me now that the time is ripe for an organization of this kind. I agree with Mr. Wolf that we should keep religion out and sectarianism out and politics out, but I do not agree that it is identical here. And also, with Mrs. Lincoln, I don't agree that it is identical with the proposition made here. We have a proposition that the government should take the strict statistical work. That does not depend upon literalism: it is a matter of the scientific gathering of statistics. On the other hand, we have a proposition to appoint a secretary of the National Conference of Charities. It will not be his first business to formulate legislation. It will be his business to attend to the spiritual side of this work, and go about and develop public sentiment.

The following resolution was offered by Mr. Devine: —

Resolved, That the President of this Conference be instructed to appoint a committee of three to take steps to secure the creation of a national bureau of charities and correction.

Referred to Committee on Resolutions.

The Committee on Time and Place reported that invitations had been received from Denver, Indianapolis, Cleveland, Portland, Ore., and Milwaukee. The committee had voted, if it met with the approval of the Conference, to meet in Milwaukee on the 8th of May, if possible, the birthday of Mr. Andrew E. Elmore, the oldest living member of the Conference.

On motion it was voted to accept and adopt the report of the Committee on Time and Place to meet in Milwaukee in the month of May, 1902.

On motion it was voted to extend thanks to the other cities which had invited the Conference for next year.

On motion it was voted that the exact date of the May meeting for 1902 should be left with the Executive Committee, with power.

Adjourned at 12 M.

Section Meetings, 11 *to* 1. — Destitute and Neglected Children,

"Boards of Guardians"; Juvenile Reformatories, "Mental Capacity of Juvenile Delinquents"; Division between Public and Private Charity, "Outdoor Relief."

FIFTH SESSION.

Saturday night, May 11.

The fifth general session was called to order by the President at eight o'clock.

A letter from the Kansas Board of Charities, signed by H. J. Allen, president, and Edwin Snider, secretary, was read by the Secretary, of which the following is the substance: —

It is with great regret that we are obliged to forego the privilege of attending the Conference at Washington, an unforeseen contingency preventing after all preparations were made.

The Board of Trustees of Charities and Corrections of Kansas desire to express to the Conference our appreciation and pleasure in attending the Conference last year. It was a profitable school for us, and we desire to express our gratitude to the Conference for having held its session in Topeka, so far from the centre of the great field of charities and corrections, and much to the inconvenience of many of your members. We look upon your convention here as a tribute to and an encouragement of our efforts in the field of public charities.

The result of the Conference in Topeka has been to largely arouse public sentiment and stimulate effort in the direction of more systematic, intelligent work in public relief. The organization of the State Association of Charities and Corrections, under the energetic leadership of Professor F. W. Blackmar, of the State University, was one immediate result; and, later on, the complete revision of our code of charities by the legislature, with an intelligent civil service provision and a largely increased field of supervision by the State Board of Charities, may be attributed to the beneficent influence of your Topeka Conference.

The subject for the evening was the report of the Committee on the Insane, George F. Keene, M.D., superintendent State Hospital for Insane, Rhode Island, chairman. A paper entitled "Public Policy in the Care of the Insane up to the Twentieth Century" was read by Dr Keene (page 155). A paper entitled "Legal Requirements for the Commitment of the Insane" was read by Alonzo B. Richardson, M.D., superintendent United States Hospital for Insane, Washington, D.C. (page 165).

Mr. Michel Heymann asked the privilege of making a report upon the International Congress of Public and Private Charity, which met in Paris in the summer of 1900, and which he attended as a Vice-

President of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The following is a summary of the report: —

The International Congress of Public and Private Charity met in Paris July 3, 1900, and closed August 5. The number of official delegates was 71, and individual members 1,507, a total of 1,578.

The congress was opened by President Loubet, surrounded by the ministers and official representatives of the French government and of foreign countries and of adherents. Ex-President Casimir Périer, presiding officer of the congress, in an eloquent address welcomed the delegates, and explained the object of the meeting. Mr. Le-Jeune, secretary of state, spoke in behalf of the foreign members of the congress. The president of the French republic addressed the congress, after which the meeting adjourned to meet in the Palace of Congresses at the exposition grounds, where all the section meetings were held, while all the general sessions were held at the hotel of the Sociétées Savantes.

The congress was divided into four sections: Child-saving, Hon. Felix Voisin, president; Sick and Infirm, president, Herman Sabian; Healthy Poor, president, Mr. Georges Picot; Help through Work, president, Mr. Casimir Périer.

I read a small monograph on "Child-saving in New Orleans," and a resolution for the extension of free kindergartens throughout the world was unanimously carried by the congress. This resolution reads as follows: —

Resolved, That the congress recommends the creation and development, in all populous centres, of free kindergartens, co-operating simultaneously for the education of the children and of their parents.

Certain principles were enunciated during the sessions of this congress.

With reference to the poor: —

I. Outdoor relief, to be efficacious, must be given only after thorough investigation. If possible, it must tend to keep the family together, to uplift its moral state, and to help the members to make a living through work.

II. To be effective, assistance must come through public and private charity united.

III. To secure harmony, private institutions must submit to the control of law. The state must also assure and guarantee their liberty of action.

IV. To facilitate a mutual understanding between public and private charity, there should be created a joint committee representing both. The members of this committee must be independent of the government, of politics, and of religion.

With reference to children: —

I. *Preservation schools* should be established for children who cannot be placed in families.

II. In case the children are vicious, they should be transferred to reform schools.

III. Both public and private preservation schools should be placed under the control of the government. The private schools will receive stipends from the state.

IV. These institutions must, as much as possible, be in the nature of normal homes, and avoid too large a number of pupils. They must try to teach, if possible, trades, agriculture, etc. The officers of this institution should be chosen from the rank of teachers, doctors, or from charitable institutions.

V. The courts should send children directly to one of those preservation schools, in case of moral danger.

VI. Children sent to schools of correction should be kept until they are of age.

VII. Penal minority, in the countries where it is below eighteen years, should be raised to that age.

With reference to tuberculosis.— Tuberculosis being a curable disease, there should be special public institutions for its treatment as soon as possible after the inception of the sickness, with isolation of the tuberculous patient in special pavilions.

With reference to prevention of crime.— Legislatures should have power to deprive unworthy or incapable parents of the right to bring up their children; and all children morally abandoned or sent before the courts of justice should undergo a medical examination, that the abnormal may be sent to special establishments.

In the interests of children.— In populous centres there should be committees to facilitate the placing of apprentices and to advise parents and children in the choice of a profession. In placing children abandoned by their families, an active supervision over the children should be exercised, and prizes be given to the best. For blind, deaf and dumb, or sick adults, special shops should be created.

In all cities there should be libraries, free lectures, etc., thus permitting children to continue their education; also, institutions for music and singing, and in country places lectures on agriculture.

In the interests of children of delicate health, vacation colonies among the mountains or on the seashore should be established.

In the interests of sobriety.—Temperance restaurants and boarding-houses should be established for young men and women who work in manufactories and other commercial houses, and to these boarding-houses should be joined reading and recreation rooms, where young people may spend their hours of leisure.

Among the resolutions passed were the two following: —

Resolved, That every public school should have a free kitchen, for the benefit of poor children.

Resolved, That this congress approves and encourages all persons and societies that have created working-gardens (potato patch).

It is gratifying to know that the congress adopted the following resolution: —

> The congress recognizes the superiority, in a social, moral, and financial point of view, of the methods adopted by the charity organization societies of England and America in the struggle against pauperism (vol. i. p. 185).

It is to be regretted that the United States had so few representatives at this congress. Besides my own monograph on "Child-saving in New Orleans," there was but one paper, sent by Mr. Galen A. Merrill.

DISCUSSION ON CARE OF THE INSANE.

Dr. Keene, who conducted the discussion on the care of the insane, invited F. H. Wines, LL.D., to open it.

Dr. F. H. Wines.— I do not claim to be an expert in insanity, but I may speak as a layman who has had thirty years' experience in official supervision of the care of the insane in public institutions. I suppose that during that time I have seen some thirty or forty thousand insane patients in the hospitals of this country and of Europe. I congratulate this Conference upon the admirable papers read here to-night. The history of the care of the insane has never been elucidated with greater perspicuity, grace, and elegance than by our friend, Dr. Keene. The question of medical jurisprudence has never been more clearly and sympathetically discussed than by Dr. Richardson, the able and distinguished successor of our old and beloved friend, Dr. Godding.

There is no absolute definition of insanity. We recognize it by its symptoms. Two sayings on the subject have greatly impressed me, contradictory as at first sight they appear. One is that the insane mind cannot be understood by any one who is not himself insane; the other, that the insane mind cannot be understood by any one who is not perfectly sane. I do not know to what to compare insanity except to a dream, a bad dream, full of images which continually recur and vex and torment the patient, and mislead him. I have had an insane patient say to me: "Are you real or are you unreal? Am I real or am I unreal?" He was utterly unable to tell whether his actual experiences were or were not the fictions of his imagination.

Now this mental condition is the result of disease of the brain. The brain is covered by a bony envelope, so that you cannot by the eye investigate the location and character of the trouble. You can only judge it by its manifestations. Sometimes those manifestations are so clear and definite that any observer knows that a certain other man is a maniac, a lunatic or imbecile. Sometimes they are so obscure that they can only be detected by a physician accustomed

to deal with insanity in its incipient stages. As Dr. Richardson has said, the question of the presence or absence of disease in the brain is a medical question, and must be determined by medical experts, and only by them. The question of his confinement, of his deprivation of liberty, both for the good of the patient and for that of society, is, on the other hand, a legal question upon which a court must pass; but it is not necessary that the proceedings of the court shall always be public, nor in the majority of cases that the question at issue should be referred to the decision of a jury.

It must be understood that this proceeding is not a criminal proceeding. It is a friendly inquest in the interest of the patient, just as much as the question of appointment of a guardian for a child is in the interest of the child. Legal proceedings are necessary safeguards thrown around the patient in the one instance and the child in the other.

Do not suppose that any insane hospital is a paradise. It is not. It cannot be, so long as it is occupied by people full of delusions, many of them people with whom it would be impossible to associate in any relation of life. There are in our institutions for the insane many incompetent attendants. But they are not the abodes of horror they used to be, as Dr. Keene has told us.

What the nature of this disease is, it is hard to say. As a layman, I should not dare to speak dogmatically on the subject; but it does seem to me (and many physicians take the same view) that it is essentially a disease of the nutrition of the brain. The brain is like a bank in which so much money is deposited. You cannot draw out any more money than you have in it. You have so much power in your brain and nervous system, and you can husband and save it or you can exhaust it. The whole question of the sanity or insanity of an individual often turns upon the question of the balance between the supply of nervous energy in the brain and the demand made upon it. If I overdraw my bank account, my credit is gone. Now some people have very little money in the bank to start with. Some people are born with brains without much power, and yet the little they have they waste. That is the cause of a great many cases of insanity. People say it is love-sickness, or ill-health, or loss of property, or religious excitement; but these are secondary, not primary causes. The real reason why the patient is insane is that his brain power is exhausted. He has destroyed the balance between the debit and credit side of his account, and no longer has sufficient funds in the bank to meet his checks. I remember visiting a hospital for the insane in Indiana some years ago, when Dr. Fletcher was at the head of it. He showed me a remarkable collection of skulls of patients in which the foramina in the base of the skull were abnormally small. The heart could not, without extraordinary exertion, supply sufficient blood to keep up healthy activity of the brain; and these patients were doomed to insanity from their birth, provided

anything should occur to them in the nature of over-excitement. Some are insane for want of sufficient food or of proper food. So that, in discussing environment, we have to consider not only the tenement-house question, but the question of pure food supply. Some people, on the other hand, are insane because of an overdraft upon their mental and nervous energy.

The treatment of insanity consists in the restoration of the balance between the supply of nervous energy and the demand made upon it. The main symptom of insanity is loss of power of self-control. The treatment must consist in an effort to restore this power. When it is sufficiently restored to trust the patient outside, he may be paroled to return home, with the power on the part of the institution to take him back if the experiment fails. If the experiment succeeds, then he is discharged cured; but there is no assurance against recurrence of the disease.

One thing should always be said to a public audience; and that is, that, if insanity should occur in your family, as it may, as perhaps it has done in the families of some of you, you cannot treat it. You do not understand the disease. You do not know how to treat it. You are too sympathetic, too tender, too indulgent, or you are too harsh, too unkind; and the patient loses your confidence. Insanity cannot be successfully treated by an ordinary physician: it must be treated by experts, and generally in an institution. It is curable or incurable, according as it is properly treated in its early stages or not. It is often a very curable disease, as much so as a cold. In its later stages it is a very difficult disease to deal with, and generally incurable. The question of the salvation or destruction of the patient depends often on his receiving proper treatment at the beginning. I have the greatest sympathy with the insane and with their families; and I think I may claim, though I am not an expert, not an alienist, nor even a physician, to have borne some little part in the emancipation of the medical profession from certain formulas of belief and practice which so long bound many of our leading alienists, and, like fetters on their limbs, prevented them from making progress.

Hon. William Pryor Letchworth.— This is a subject upon which I speak with reluctance, for it is one upon which a great deal should be said or but little. I would prefer to say nothing but for the reason that I desire to show my appreciation of the valuable papers to which I have just listened. The pictured retrospect of the abuses to which the insane were subjected in times happily long past teaches us a lesson that must strengthen our philanthropy.

In considering the legal commitment of the insane, we have a complicated question to deal with. To deprive a man of his liberty, social privileges, and the right to transact business, to say nothing more, is an assumption of power that we should be well assured we rightly possess before attempting to exercise it. If the mental con-

dition of a person makes it necessary to interfere with his liberty, our laws should be so framed as to protect not only society at large, but the rights of the individual. This subject has been variously dealt with in different states, and what has been said here respecting it is suggestive and instructive.

Legal commitment to hospitals for the insane is the usual form of admission to these institutions; but I desire to see more generally adopted the method of voluntary admission, provision for which was first made in this country at the celebrated McLean Hospital in Massachusetts. All recognize the necessity for early treatment of mental disease and the comparative success attending it. Why, then, should we wait for a mental catastrophe to occur before opening the way for treatment by voluntary admission to a hospital? If we could have small psycopathic hospitals or sanatoriums located near our populous cities, and equipped and managed with special reference to curative results rather than custodial care, I believe the volume of insanity would gradually be reduced and the necessity for increased provision for chronic cases would be greatly lessened. Moreover, the repugnance to enter hospitals for the insane and the obloquy attending legal commitment thereto would be largely overcome; and persons suffering from threatened insanity would go to these special hospitals with as little reluctance as they would commit themselves to the care of our general hospitals. If the disease does not yield to early skilled treatment, the process of legal commitment can subsequently be resorted to. I am glad to see that this plan is sanctioned by some of our best alientists. It is something for which I have pleaded for more than a quarter of a century.

The reference made to hospital construction recalls to my mind some of the principles advocated by that remarkable woman, Miss Dorothea L. Dix. As an illustration of her practical views, on one occasion when visiting with her a palatial structure soon to be opened for insane patients, she remarked to the president of the board of trustees, as she regarded the lofty ceilings and stately spaces of the buildings, "What will it cost to warm this building?" An attempt was made subsequently to answer this perplexing question before a legislative committee, when an immense appropriation for coal was required. Miss Dix strongly opposed the establishment of great institutions for the common care of the acute and the chronic insane. She did not insist that there should be strict classification; but she sought for plain, simple construction and outdoor life for the great mass of chronic patients. It is generally thought that she favored the creation of enormous state hospitals (of which we have too many examples), but she did not.

CONFERENCE SERMON.

Sunday morning, May 12.

The Conference Sermon was preached in the Church of the Epiphany by Rev. George Hodges, D.D., dean of the Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge, Mass. (page 1).

SUNDAY EVENING ADDRESSES.

Sunday night, May 12.

Sunday evening was devoted to addresses on the Principles and Methods of Associated Charities, in the Foundry Methodist Episcopal Church. The speakers were: Mr. Edward T. Devine, secretary New York Charity Organization Society (page 321); Mr. E. P. Bicknell, superintendent Chicago Bureau of Charities (page 324); Miss Mary E. Richmond, secretary Philadelphia Society for Organized Charity (page 327); and Mr. Robert Treat Paine, president Boston Associated Charities (page 330).

SIXTH SESSION.

Monday morning, May 13.

The sixth general session was called to order by the President at 9.30 A.M.

Mr. Hart said that there was a question as to the best way of distributing the report of the Conference. His experience showed that where it was purchased it was more appreciated than when it was received gratuitously. Circulars are sent out yearly to 7,000 libraries; and there is a small demand, though a growing one, for these books and in some libraries the volumes are much used.

Mr. Robert Treat Paine offered the following resolution, which was passed:—

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be asked to consider the time when Mr. H. H. Hart's resignation take effect, to the end that his services be requested until the volume of this year's Proceedings be published, with power to take such action as they think wise.

Mr. I. F. MACK, Ohio.—The question of the care of sailors' and soldiers' orphans is one that might well be discussed by this Con-

ference. There are now twenty-one state institutions for the care of soldiers besides those in the Southern States. In addition to those there are several under the care of the general government. In Ohio the Soldiers' Home was founded in 1886. At that time it was thought about a thousand men would have to be provided for. We found that 334 of these men were in county infirmaries and others were fast going into the infirmaries. We now have 1,680 Union veterans in that home, men well advanced in years and unable by age and disease to care for themselves, the most of them without families. If they have children, they have grown up or passed out of sight; and these men are the wards of the state. Most of them receive small pensions from the government,— from six to ten dollars a month. That would not support them outside of an institution. The general government pays $100 per annum toward the support of these men. The remainder of the expense comes out of the state treasury, and amounts to $40 each per year. The annual average cost of supporting these men in the infirmaries was more than in the Soldiers' Home. We give them as much liberty as is consistent with good discipline. The only source of trouble is the matter of drink. A few of them, unless kept under restraint, are almost sure to be intemperate about the time they receive their pension money. We have in Ohio a home where there are a thousand minors, children of deceased soldiers mostly, though many of them have fathers still living, but unable to care for them,— most of them in the Soldiers' Home. That home has been in existence since 1869, when it was started by the G. A. R.; but it has been made a public institution. We have graduated about 5,000 children from it, who have usually been taught trades. We have a complete record of what they are doing, and not one of them has gone astray. It is a subject worth considering by this Conference,— what we shall do with these people. Soldiers' homes are rapidly increasing in membership, as the men grow older and feebler. How shall we stop the drink habit? We have a law which forbids the planting of a saloon within a certain distance of the Soldiers' Home; but they go to the saloons in spite of it, and are drawn into all sorts of dives, robbed of their money, and often turned out to die. At Dayton there are 6,000 in the Soldiers' Home.

The subject of the morning was taken up, the report of the Committee on Division of Work between Public and Private Charities, Professor Frank A. Fetter, of Cornell University, chairman. Professor Fetter presided over the discussion and himself read the report (page 118).

A paper on "The Subsidy Problem in New York City" was read by Hon. Bird S. Coler, comptroller, New York (page 131).

Invitations to visit the Florence Crittenton Home and the Good Samaritan Home were read by the secretary.

DISCUSSION.

Mrs. ROLAND C. LINCOLN, Boston.— I am heartily in sympathy with the idea that private institutions should not be subsidized. I wish very much to urge that there shall be classification in almshouses, so that suitable provision shall be made for aged people. Boston has done that, I think, successfully. The city has one with about one hundred inmates, where the unfortunate but deserving are provided for. They are sent there with that idea. The other class are provided for in another institution. I believe that classification within institutions is possible and advisable.

Mr. COLER.— I entirely agree with the lady.

Mr. HUGH FOX.— The New Jersey State Board of Children's Guardians acts as foster parent to all the "dependent" children in the state. In order to make a child a "public charge," it must be committed, either by a justice or by the overseer of the poor, to the county or township almshouse. Upon its commitment it becomes the ward of the Board of Guardians during its minority.

It is the duty of the board to place the child in a family within thirty days,— either a boarding-house or a free home, as may be best. Normal children under four and over ten can generally be placed in free homes. For the others we pay board of $1.50 per week, also clothing and medical attendance. There are two features of our work which, so far as official boards go, are unique. They are the requirement by the act which created us that children shall be placed in families whose faith is the same as their parents, and the plan of placing the children by a simple agreement instead of by indenture or adoption. This secures to us the right to remove a child without notice or the assignment of any cause, at our discretion. It is a wonderful safeguard, as it enables us to restore a child to its parents, if advisable, or to transfer it to another foster home. Neither of these features of our work is original. We borrowed them from two of the principal private child-saving societies,— the Children's Aid Societies of Boston and of Philadelphia. We have also borrowed some of their provisions as to the visiting of the children, and the constant supervision of the school-teacher and the minister. I think, though, that our investigation of the home before a child is placed in it, our system of supervision afterward, and our requirements for the care and education of the child are unusually rigid. The authority of the state is a powerful factor in this connection.

The cost of administering the work falls on the state. The expense of maintaining the children is a charge upon the county or township.

The act by which the board was created gives us a certain discretion in dealing with defective children, and those on the borderland who need a little hospital care or surgical treatment; also, those who are wayward or unruly. In short, we can use both state and private institutions for the "difficult" cases. A good many so-called incorrigible children have been made over morally by a little medical attention.

The recognition of the right of the parents to have their children brought up in their own religious environment has insured for us the active co-operation of the church authorities, Catholic and Protestant. The priests and ministers take a personal interest in our wards, and help us to secure homes for them.

I have omitted one very important feature of our work, which is, I think, unique, so far as a state board goes; namely, the power which we exercise of investigating the family history of each child that is committed to us. If we find that they have any relatives who are able to care for them, we force them to do so. In this way we have relieved the tax-payers of the care of fully four hundred children during the two years we have been in office, and are able to place a wholesome check upon the new commitments.

The board is unpaid and non-partisan, and consists of two women and five men, whose terms of office are so arranged that only a minority of the board retire during any one administration.

The harmonious relations which we have established with the clergy, the officials who administer outdoor relief, and the various charity organization societies and child-caring agencies frequently enable us to re-establish a family on a self-supporting basis; and the beneficence of one of our own members, whose place I occupy to-day, has helped us to give many a needy family a fresh start in life. Of course, no children are "boarded" at public expense with their own relatives.

I should like to be able to carry this a point further, and to outline my dream of what an ideal State Board of Guardians might be. It ought to be a dynamic force to convey energy to all the private child-saving agencies in the state. It ought to know all that has been done in every department of preventive, curative, remedial, and constructive work for all kinds of poor children. The sum of its knowledge and experience ought to be always at the disposal of all persons who are working with, for, or by children. In fact, its possibilities of usefulness should only be limited by the tremendous problems which the broad field of child-saving work involves.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON.*— The Charity Organization Society of Indianapolis, when Oscar McCulloch drafted the bill which became the Board of Guardians Law, was face to face with a condition, not a theory. The Charity Organization Society had been at work

* The remarks of Mr. Alexander Johnson, though spoken at another session, are inserted here for convenience of reference.

several years. Its records were full, its investigations careful, the facts concerning hundreds of pauper and semi-pauper families were well known. The most pressing and terrible of these facts was that there were several hundred children, known by name and circumstance, who were growing up to a life of certain shame and misery, to be thieves, drunkards, prostitutes, or paupers, and that there was no way to rescue them.

The act did not introduce any new principle of law. It simply said: The right to a fair chance at a decent life is as sacred as the right of property, real or personal. Just as the court from time immemorial may step in and defend a child's property against its own parents when they seek to squander it, so shall the court step in and defend the child's morals, its possibility of good citizenship, against parents who prove their unfitness for parenthood by shameless lives.

The board was made an agent of the court, appointed by the judge, reporting to him, acting for him, and under his contract. It was given summary power to take custody of and protect the child during the pendency of the action. As soon as the summons was issued, the board took the children. If the case failed, they had to return them; but they were very careful, not only to have good cases, but to have the evidence in shape.

The results during the past two years were remarkable. Many families moved from slums to decent quarters, some left the city, many cleaned up and sent their children to school. The first few cases were fought hard. Then the rightness of the plan was recognized, and then in some cases parents became only too ready to give their children to the board. The good results upon slum-dwellers, where families had not even been threatened, were very interesting and salutary. The people got the idea that "The guardians 'll git you if you don't watch out."

The law was slowly broadened; but it applied to Centre Township of Marion County only, then to the whole county, then to counties with successively less and less population. Now each large city in the state has such a board, and hundreds of children have been reared and are now good citizens whose future was all too certainly a criminal one before the law was enacted.

Mr. L. ABRAHAM, Washington.— I have been superintendent of admission in an industrial home school for many years in this city, and I find that many parents discard their children in order to get them into so-called orphan institutions. There is a law here that a person who deserts his children shall pay for their maintenance. That law ought to be uniform in all the states. If a person deserts his wife, he has to pay alimony; and, if he deserts his children, he ought to pay alimony for their support. There are thousands of children sent to orphan asylums whose parents are still living and could support them. No child ought to be admitted to an institu-

tion without official inquiry as to these facts. I have had children brought to me by a man in his carriage, who wanted me to take the children so that he could go away for the summer,— take them free! And that is only one case. There are thousands similar with reference to the placing-out of children.

Mr. J. R. Brackett rose to a point of order; that the Conference was not discussing the placing-out of children. The chair sustained the point.

Mr. C. L. Stonaker, Colorado.— In the small towns we have trouble with public subsidies. We have a law requiring state control of the State Home for Dependent Children. It is all right, possibly, to subsidize when the institution is all right; but I know societies where 50 per cent. of the children have parents, one or both, and on inquiry it has been found that many had earning capacity. Recently I discovered six relatives, all earning money, and the child in a subsidized institution. The minute you place such a child in an institution, whether private or subsidized, the parents lose their moral obligations. I have this to suggest: if you must take a child into a subsidized institution, take the parent along, and let him pay his own board and the child's board, and let him wait on the child at table and go with him to the little cottage, the school, or wherever the child goes; and pretty soon the parent will say: "I think I can support my child pretty well outside. I have learned my lesson."

Rev. D. J. McMahon, Supervisor of Catholic Charities, New York.— I would like to state that there is no undue number of dependent children entering or remaining in our New York institutions, because they are under private control. It has recently become my duty to look into the case of those who remain in Catholic institutions more than a certain number of years, for the purpose of learning why they have been there so long, and to act accordingly. On investigation, I found that a large percentage were defectives and could not be placed out, while the majority of the others had relatives who would soon care for them. The remainder will be placed out speedily, as the Catholic Home Bureau has been asked to find homes for the purpose of placing these out. At the same time, each institution does much on its own account in placing-out work.

The great reason for the large number of children in our institutions lies in the fact stated by Comptroller Coler, that New York City is the dumping-ground of Europe and of the United States in this matter. We shall continue also to have a large number of such children in our institutions, though we should use all manner of efforts to place them in homes. We are all the time looking for places in good families, but the supply of children is much greater than the demand on the part of homes. It is not an easy matter at the present time to place children in institutions, and we have thus prevented

increase in number of those dependent. An investigation is made by the Board of Charities, to which all such applications are presented. If there is any doubt about the ability of the parents or relatives to care for the child, the case is deferred; and in the mean time private charity is called upon to keep the family together.

If the superintendent of this department should pass the case over to an institution, the Charity Organization Society, the St. Vincent de Paul Society, then use their powers and means to have the family kept together, if it be at all proper. Yet, with all these investigations and examinations, which certainly do not favor the applicant's desire, there are to-day as many children going into institutions, and even more, than are coming out.

The city does not pay for the support of any destitute children over sixteen years of age.

We are soon to have a court for children's cases opened in our city; and not only shall the cases of "going into" the institutions be carefully examined, as in the past, but doubtless the cases of "long remaining in" the institutions will meet attention in the near future. One thing, however, is certain,— that the state of New York can scarcely find homes as quickly as the children are cast upon its care.

But we want to find the principle on which this question under discussion is to be solved. We may talk about facts, but let us find the principle that is involved in the giving of public money to private institutions. If we can find that, the application of it will depend entirely upon the circumstances. What is that principle? It goes back to the object of the state's existence. What is the state desirous of obtaining? It is desirous of obtaining the welfare of every child and individual in the state,— the best welfare of its dependants, since it is *in loco parentis* in great measure for them; consequently, the best means for obtaining that welfare. What is that? Is it an economic or a religious question? There are men who doubt, but there is no doubt about it in one portion of the community.

One portion considers it a religious question, the other an economical question. I would make a distinction. When it is a question about dependants whose characters are formed, who have attained to the age of discretion, who have sense and judgment, then it makes no difference whether they are provided for in public or private institutions. But, when it is a question of persons young in years, whose characters are not formed, whose habits are not formed, whose moral bearing and training are not formed, then it is necessary that they should be in institutions where religious faith, the moral conduct, the ethical bearing, will be looked after most carefully. Therefore, for children who are dependent and for reformatory children, the private institution is the best,— the proper one, since it there can be rightly trained in moral and religious life. I speak of New York, for it would be practically

impossible to place all such children of New York out in families. It would be to the detriment of the state, not only to the state of New York, but to the other states of the Union, if we did not place them in institutions of this kind, and thus provide at least temporarily for them. If we had not some way of receiving them in private institutions, they would be scattered, and by their untrained lives and want of moral force do much harm to society. But, because they are so numerous in New York, the private institutions would not be able to support them all; and so they call upon the authorities for aid. It may be said that private benevolence is stopped by this method, but I say no. For every dollar stopped by giving public support to private institutions there are a thousand and one other places where private help is needed and given. Private benevolence can be very useful in this country of ours. So, while there may be apparently a damming up of such contributions, it will go into other fields of charity and education just as useful. While this is a question of economics, it is truly also a question of religion.

As to the influence of politics in institutions, I think in New York we have had our little experience. On February 12 last there were assembled in the Senate Chamber at Albany three hundred workers from every city of New York to uphold the banner against political influences going into the State Board of Charities. People of different beliefs and of every shade of politics were gathered together. We felt, every one of us, interested in this question. We felt that, if the Board of State Charities, or any institution that has the care of children, should be completely under political control, it would be an injury to the state. I am sure that every man who stood on the Senate floor that day felt that he was working for God and for his country when he was striving to keep out political influence from such institutions.

As to reformatory work, we had from one woman — an expert of more than twenty-five years' experience, Mrs. Charles R. Lowell,— you all know her — a statement at the State Convention of New York that only private institutions under religious control can give the best results for those who are obliged to go into reformatories. And do you ask that in New York, a city of three millions, all such shall be supported by private benevolence? No, it would be wrong. Look at the conditions we are in as the great metropolis! We are striving to better those conditions. As we help these dependants here, we believe we are helping all the states whence they come,— helping them financially, in charity, in religion, and in education.

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

Section Meetings, 11.30 *to* 1.— Joint Session, The George Junior Republic, Destitute and Neglected Children, Juvenile Reformatories; Needy Families in their Homes, "Unusual Forms of Relief."

SEVENTH SESSION.

Monday night, May 13.

The seventh general session was called to order by the President at 8 P.M. The subject of the evening was Needy Families in their Homes. Chairman of the committee, Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Boston. Miss Smith opened the meeting with a brief introduction (page 284), and presided during the evening. Addresses were made by Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, Baltimore, on "Present Opportunities for Training in Charitable Work" (page 289), and by Professor John Graham Brooks, Cambridge, Mass., on "Some Problems of the Family" (page 293).

Mr. Frank Tucker, chairman of the committee appointed to consider the advisability of printing the report of the proceedings of this section separately, reported that the committee unanimously advised such publication, provided money could be raised, and that $150 of the necessary amount had been subscribed. It was hoped that the cost per report would not exceed twenty-five cents.

DISCUSSION ON NEEDY FAMILIES.

Rev. Dr. PULLMAN, Lynn, Mass.— Let us assume that any specified community needs to organize its charities; that organization will do in charity what it would do in anything else; that it will diminish the cost and increase the value of the product; that there must be co-operation, because that is involved in the very essence of the thing. Let us understand that there are difficulties in the way; that the members of a newly started charity organization society have got to convince the community of the truth of things that it does not believe. You must have co-operation. It is like the boys who slept four in a bed,— they had to turn over all together or not at all. That will be the chief difficulty you will meet; but you must have co-operation, or you will never get any breadth or power. You must convince the community of this by your lips and still more by the acts of those who do most thoroughly believe in charity organization. The power to convince a successful, prosperous, and very busy man that the parasite family that lives in the outskirts of his city is a responsibility that belongs to him,— the power to do that would seem to be a unique and remarkable power, but for your encouragement I will say that for thirty years I have been at this kind of work without any unique or remarkable power at all, and that I am convinced that this is the way in which many of the evils

that afflict large and rapidly growing communities can be helped. I believe that there is not a pauper in the whole city who is not savable, if rightly treated; that they can be brought to a condition of self-respect and self-dependence. It is this that the ladies and gentlemen of Washington in the Associated Charities are trying to accomplish.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON.— If I have time, I want to tell you two stories. The first is of how I made one of my most illustrious converts,— a gentleman who now occupies a seat in President McKinley's cabinet. He was then living in Chicago, and I was secretary of the Charity Organization Society. He subscribed, but did not use us. I met him one day attending a board meeting of another society of which we both were members. He asked me, "Well how goes the Charity Organization Society?" I said, "Fairly well, Mr. Gage; but our subscribers don't make use of us as they should." "Yes," he said, "I know I don't. I had a man yesterday I nearly sent to you. It hung between one of your tickets and a dollar, but the dollar won." I said, "Tell me about it"; and he described the case. Oh, a good case, workingman, evidently,— no loafer. Railroad man from South, wife and two children. Had work to go to in three days at his trade. Wife sickly. Don't think he had begged before. "And you only gave him a dollar?" I said, "Why, you should have given him at least five. A man with a wife and two children cannot live three days in furnished rooms in Chicago for a dollar." "Well, but I could not give everybody all they need. I have too many calls." "Precisely so! but just see what you did to the man. If your theory was correct that he was not a beggar, don't you see you gave him his first big kick down hill into pauperism and vice? A man who had never earned a dollar under five hours' hard work, and you show him that he can beg a dollar in five minutes. The first taste of alms is often like a tiger's first taste of blood." "Well," he said, "I see, perhaps, I did wrong; but what would you have done, had I sent him to you?" "I don't know. Every case is by itself. We have no cure-all in our medicine chest. But I will tell you of a similar case I had recently. This was an Englishman sent to me by the St. George's Benevolent Society. Wife and two children, one sickly. Family on North Side, near our district office. Man thought he could not find work, was just ready to be pauperized, had had several tastes of alms. I sent him to our wood-yard with orders to the manager to let him earn his dinner sawing wood and give him any odd jobs that came in during the afternoon. Then I 'phoned the North Side agent to find the family, and pay for their dinner at the expense of the St. George's Society. It cost 35 cents. During the afternoon he earned enough to pay their room-rent and supper and breakfast, and for two days thereafter he just kept even with odd jobs from the yard. Then our treasurer had three days' work at $2 per day for a man, and John got that. Then we heard of a college wanting a janitor, $18 per month with rooms, fuel, gas, and water;

and John was set up for the present. Net result,—man and family saved from pauperism; net cost, 35 cents (paid by the co-operating society) and *brains*. "Well," said Mr. Gage, "I'll never do it again. But you are not a relief society: how can I send people to you?" I said, "I'll help any you send, and send the bill to you." "That's good," he said, "but let me give you something in hand." And he gave me $50 to use for his cases. He afterward declared that he sent me all that came to him, and the $50 lasted more than three years, and would not have been all used then, but I got his permission to use some of it for a chattel mortgage case that was not one of his. Time is up. I'll tell you the other story at Milwaukee next year.

Miss Mary Willcox Brown, general secretary of the Charity Organization Society, Baltimore, spoke briefly with reference to child insurance, which she considered one of the most expensive forms of insurance and one that in most cases necessarily means total loss to the person insuring, as the companies, in not insuring children until they pass the age of greatest mortality, do not assume the risk of infant death, and the percentage of children dying between two and fifteen years (the age at which child insurance ceases) is not very high. Through the efforts of friendly visitors, families were sometimes induced to transfer their savings from the industrial insurance companies to the savings-bank.

The only way to compete with the insurance agents who go from family to family to induce them to insure their children is by personal service in the homes of needy families, persuading them that they are wronging their children to rob them of proper nourishment and care in order to pay the money to the insurance companies. They should be encouraged to save their quarters and dimes and pennies, and put them into savings-banks. The agent of the companies is not to blame. He has his wages to make, and this he does by going to the homes of the poor in behalf of the insurance companies. Unless a friendly visitor has much personal influence with a family, she has not much chance when the agent is present. He is adroit and accustomed to working on the feelings of these people, and it requires the personal interest of the friendly visitor to compete with him.

Mr. Frank Tucker, New York.—I want to tell the experience we had in New York. I believe, in our work with needy families, in trying to make our relations with the family as nearly normal as possible; and I quite agree with Mr. Brooks as to giving material relief in the shape of money and permitting the families to expend it. In our work of trying to reconstruct these dependent families we are obliged to use a system of orders in providing food supplies. On the back of these orders is a list of articles of food, carefully thought out, which seem to meet most nearly the needs of the families with whom we deal. For a series of years it has been our custom to have our

visitors indicate on this list the kind of food and the quantity for each family. In our desire to make our relations to the family as nearly normal as possible, our superintendent of relief determined to permit the families themselves to order from this list such articles as they desired, with the idea that they would be able to spend the money wisely. At the end of the month these orders are returned from the grocery stores with which we deal, and for one month I had an examination of five hundred of these orders made. They represented the material relief in food that we had given to one hundred and fifty families. Each article was carefully put in a statistical table; and we were amazed to find that 70 per cent. of those families who were dependent upon private charity, who had less than normal earning capacity and could not maintain themselves, had been purchasing tea, coffee, sugar, and butter,— articles which not so many years ago were considered luxuries in many families! They had ordered very few cereals of any kind. The next article in demand was bacon, and then eggs. What Mr. Brooks has spoken of as the faculty of saving in buying was evidently not there; and, when that condition of ignorance exists, I do not see what we are to do. We found ourselves in a quandary, and finally decided to go back to the system of indicating the food supplies that a family should have.

Mr. GLENN.— It may be interesting to hear of some experience that is outside of charity. I speak as a landlord. I have had a large experience with tenants. I have done more harm by leniency in collecting rents than by being strict. Many a time men and women come with a story of inability to pay and a request for delay in payment, when a slight extra effort would enable them to pay. In such cases, to give them time is only to encourage them to get behindhand; and, once they get behind, it is harder for them to catch up than it would have been to keep even. But the chief harm is in setting an example of laxness and of trusting to luck. If one is not particular with a tenant, he encourages him to be slack in his efforts to pay just debts, and tends to lessen his self-respect and self-reliance. One should never release a tenant from the obligation to promptly keep his agreement, unless he can see that in the long run it will be better for the tenant. Often it is better to turn a tenant out, so that he may seek cheaper lodgings, than to let him get behindhand. We must look beyond the present difficulty to the future effect on character, — a principle which lies at the foundation of good charity work.

Mr. ERNEST P. BICKNELL, Chicago, called attention to the duties of landlords toward delinquent rent-payers. He also referred to charity workers, and thought they should be judged by the way in which they show judgment, common sense in using their eyes and ears and hands, and not by the way in which they obey or disobey rules.

The discussion was closed by Mr. Brooks, who said in a few words that he was willing to agree that the best landlord was the strict landlord, if in unusual cases he would exercise patience.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

*FIRST SECTION MEETING.**

NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

Friday morning, May 10.

The first section meeting of the Committee on Needy Families in their Homes, Miss Zilpha D. Smith, chairman, was held Friday morning, May 10, at 10 A.M. The first business was a brief discussion as to the advisability of printing the proceedings of this section in a pamphlet by itself. Mr. E. T. Devine, Mr. C. L. Stonaker, Dr. Lewis, Hon. W. P. Letchworth, took part in the discussion. It was voted that it should be done if funds could be raised for that purpose. On motion of Mr. Crozier, it was voted that the chair should appoint a committee of five to raise not less than three hundred dollars ($300) to meet the expenses for the printing of two thousand copies of such a pamphlet. The committee was appointed as follows: Mr. A. O. Crozier, Dr. J. P. Lewis, Mrs. Izetta S. George, Mr. Frank Tucker, and Mr. J. R. Brackett.

Miss Smith then introduced Miss Mary E. Richmond, general secretary of the Society for Organizing Charity of Philadelphia, who made the opening address on "Charitable Co-operation" (page 298).

DISCUSSION ON CO-OPERATION.

Professor CHARLES NEILL, Washington.— It seems to me that all that is needed is for us to hold the two salient points that have been made. First, the forces with which we are dealing are psychical forces. We may say what we will about environment. The struggle of the poor is the struggle of the interior psychical forces against external environment. If they are going down, it is because their psychic forces are too weak; and it is our place to build them up. They are more permanent than any physical environment, if only they be made so. Psychical force will dominate physical environment. To put it concretely, our work should be not to temper the

* For convenience of reference the report of the section meetings on Needy Families is allowed to follow the general discussion, instead of being placed in an appendix by itself.

wind to the shorn lamb, but to make the lamb strong enough to stand any kind of wind. To accomplish that, we need, first of all and all the time and last of all, personal efforts. Any society is only as strong as the individual members make it. Members make society; and, until each one is a personal living force to strengthen the psychical forces of the family, their work must be a failure.

That brings up one further point which was strikingly brought out at our own Associated Charities meeting by Dr. Wines,— that for every individual who needs help we must have one Christian individual to help. There are ten times as many people not giving help as those who need it. If they would devote themselves to it, we could reduce our numbers to be helped to a minimum. This could be done by each becoming a friend to one individual beneath him. It will not do for us to go into a family, and say we will take the family as a group. Each individual has a psychical weakness, and to that we must address ourselves. I may think that the most important thing is to make the man appreciate the things I do; but, if he has an appreciation for something else, that is the point to begin with. Until every one of these forces is promoted into the personal force and diffused within the family, until each member of the family is studied and the personal force is exerted there, the family will not be reclaimed; if it is, it will be by accident. The physician may give something to reduce pain; but each individual has an idiosyncracy, and must be treated accordingly. We must take the place of the physician. And no matter what our prescription, or how well it has worked in some other case, we must not prescribe it for any one individual until we have studied the case and know that it applies to that person.

Mr. E. P. Bicknell, Chicago.— I am grateful to Miss Richmond for two things,— for the admirable diagram and the elucidation which I have rarely heard equalled, and because she did not make the second diagram. I believe that every one who has given any time to actual work in the field of charity has been very much struck by the possibilities in the development of what has been called family force. Hundreds of times we have had cases of distress and destitution, where the family seemed to be without relative or friend, without money or any resource. At a superficial glance it seemed to be true; and yet the development which careful study and suggestive questions will bring out is something amazing, so that I have come to believe that there is no one in the world who has not a friend or a relative. I believe that the possibilities in that section A are great, and that the centre of gravity is there, and that the outside forces in this particular solar system must be thrown toward the centre instead of thrown off.

As for the other diagram, which did not appear, I am not in such complete agreement. I think that Miss Richmond painted a somewhat recognizable picture, which takes the features of a cartoon, for

the sake of making her point. In this time of specialists, every one cannot take a full view of all the charities the world round. They must be interested in some concrete charity work if they are going to help in it. The only way we can get strong and able people — not little people — interested in charitable work is often through the route of some particular charity to which they become devoted, and which they come to consider the best charity on the face of the earth. In the work in which I happen to be engaged there is nothing quite so hopeful as to find the man or the woman who believes that he has got the biggest thing on top of the earth in the way of charity. There is a big possibility in that sort of person, and I believe that our best workers are to come from that class of people.

Miss Eleanor H. Bush, Boston.— I would like to emphasize the point in reference to the co-operation of relatives. They affect the family in two ways. They are not only a natural resource, but they constitute a part of the public. We charity workers are not only the servants of the public, but we are also its teachers; and, by looking up and encouraging the relatives, we are helping the public to carry its own difficulties. I remember in my first year of work being reminded by a lawyer that we were not to pauperize the rich, that we were not to take away from society the influence they might exercise as individuals. It has been my experience that we can point out to relatives the things which can be done. There are three points of contact with the relative. We sometimes find those ready to take charge of a family, supplying all the help needed, or relatives able to contribute a social impulse to the family, who have not known of their condition and who are not able to contribute to material needs. Then there are those willing to contribute, but who do not know how. They can be brought into co-operation by personal interest in them as well as in the family. There are those also who, having carried — sometimes for years — a ne'er-do-weel family, with expenditure both of money and patience, drop them at last in despair. We cannot afford to try our efforts in ignorance of their experience, even if we have to come to the conclusion that the family must remain in our care. We may learn a great deal from them, and secure their help in an indirect way.

Mr. Richard C. Humphreys, Boston.—First, allow me to say Amen to every word of the opening address, and also to say, to justify my rising, that I have been connected with the Associated Charities of Boston for twenty years. When I first took hold of the work, I said, Let us get all we can for the suffering people, and then divide it as equally as possible. About sixteen years ago I came to the conclusion that all public charity should be dispensed with. For the last ten years I have been connected with the public charity of the city of Boston, as well as with the Associated Charities; and I believe that in the co-operation of the two we have the

best method. I find but one fault with this diagram. Mathematically, that outer circle is much larger than any of the others. I should say it ought to be made much smaller.

For the city of Boston I have come to believe, after ten years' experience, that public charity is absolutely necessary; but I believe more and more in the co-operation of the Associated Charities, or the principles and theories of the Associated Charities applied to public relief.

I want to emphasize one point that has not been brought out in regard to co-operation. I know of no more important force in the real success of the Associated Charities than co-operation; but, if there is anything any stronger, it is friendly visiting,— "Not alms, but a friend." But, even with that, co-operation is absolutely necessary.

One word in regard to the co-operation of churches. That is one of the most important and one of the hardest things to obtain. We do not get the co-operation of the churches. I have found, personally, after examination, that a family has been helped, not only by one church, but, in one case, by four churches in the same vicinity, and not one of them knew that the others were helping. If the churches would co-operate with the Associated Charities, the latter would let the churches know what is being done for families that apply for relief; and it would be very helpful. One family received aid for three years from two churches a mile and a half apart, and also from two benevolent individuals; and not one knew that the other was doing anything for them.

Rev. E. E. Carrington, Colorado Springs, Col.— I knew of a case where a pastor visited a sick man, and left $10 with his wife. In the course of a few days the president of the Epworth League of the same church sent $14 to the family, not knowing what the pastor had done. A week after that the president of the Ladies' Aid Society visited the same family and left $12.50, not knowing what the others had done. I got this from the pastor, who said, "We need a charity organization society in our own church."

Mr. George B. Davis, Richmond, Va.— I am superintendent of public charities, and superintendent of the almshouse, also. I believe in organized charity. Since I have held my position, I have reduced the number getting aid by one-half. We have a city mission made up of sixty ladies. The city is divided into thirty-three districts, and these ladies do excellent work. The society has been in existence twenty years. They work with the office of public charities. We have a Citizens' Relief Association, and I am doing all I can to get the whole system organized under one head. . . . I agree with Miss Richmond that we must be personally interested in the family we are to aid, and show a concern for each one in it. If we can infuse courage and confidence into people, they can do more to help themselves. We had in the almshouse a woman of bad reputa-

tion, who had taken laudanum three times and was in despair. I put her in as nurse; and she makes one of our best nurses, because I had confidence in her. She is trying to work out her own salvation through her sense of responsibility. I shall go back to Richmond with more confidence than ever that, through organized charity, we can learn the best way of giving relief.

Rev. J. P. DUFFY, Philadelphia.—We gave a glad welcome to Miss Richmond in Philadelphia. She has struck the bull's-eye in more than one sense in exalting the family force. That is the great thing on which we must work. The great study of mankind is man, and the restoration of the individual family is what we ought to seek for. Five years ago I was in the pastorate. I began at the wrong end of the work. I have learned wisdom by the things I have suffered; and one of the things I have learned is to emphasize the need of stimulating people to do all they can in their own behalf, making employment the basis of relief. As a concrete illustration, a man came to me a few weeks ago out of employment. His wife was about to be a mother, one of his children had been run over by an ambulance. He had a trade, but no work; and his thought was to get the mother into a hospital and to get rid of the children. I told him that the thing to do was to keep the family together. I gave him a note to a firm I knew, sent some exigency relief through a visitor to the family, and at six o'clock that night the man had employment and the family was kept together. Instead of casting about to think of different agencies that will aid, let us work on the individual.

Mr. E. T. DEVINE.—The point of conciliation between the diagram that did not come and the criticism of it lies in the point which most needs to be emphasized; namely, that our interest in getting done things that need to be done should not be interfered with by an institutional pride, by jealousy for the particular charitable enterprise with which we are identified. We should not allow our charitable scheme to loom so large that we cannot see the applicant for whom it has been created. We should not become so sensitive and thin-skinned about any criticism urged against the existing situation, or suspicious of any advance movement that may be undertaken to cure some social defect, that we shall immediately imagine that criticism or that advance movement to be directed against us personally or against our charitable agency. We should give our sympathy to those who are improving conditions, regardless of the implied suggestion that we should have recognized the need for improvement.

One of the nurses attached to our society came across a little colored child, three years old, in a very deplorable physical condition. It was a case of the visiting of the sins of the parents on the child. The head and face of the child were in a horrible condition. Sight was temporarily gone; and, in the hope that it might be

restored by a removal of the cause of blindness, the nurse picked up the child, and carried it herself to the Eye and Ear Infirmary. The superintendent looked at the child, and said: "We have no accommodations for a child of that kind. It would be a source of contagion to the others. We have no isolation room. You would better take it to the Skin and Cancer Hospital." So she took it there, and they looked at it, and said: "We have not a separate room in which we can put it. It would be a source of serious contagion. You will have to take it to Bellevue" (the hospital of the department of charities). So the child was taken there, and the superintendent said: "I don't believe we can take the child in. We have no facilities for treating that trouble. It will be a source of contagion." The nurse said: "This thing has gone far enough. You are a public hospital, and you have got to take it." He replied, "Well, if we have *got* to, we will." So she carried the child up to the ward; and her last injunction was, "Now, whatever you do, don't send the child back to its home, where, from all that I have learned, it must be a source of contagion!" What was her surprise to find, two days later, that the father had gone to the hospital and taken the child back. Then the nurse consulted me; and I said, "Take it to the Board of Health, and see whether it is really a source of danger to its neighbors." So she personally consulted the responsible officer of the Board of Health; and he said, "It is not a contagious case, and we cannot remove it." She was surprised. She thought she had good authority for its contagiousness, but he said it was not the *kind* of a contagious case that the Board of Health had hospitals for or of which it could take official cognizance. She consulted me again, and I said: "There is one other resource. Report it to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children." And that was done. The point I wish to make is that, if a public statement is made in our next annual report that our charitable system does not provide adequately for all cases of contagiousness, the representatives of the Board of Health, the Department of Charities, the Skin and Cancer Hospital, and the Eye and Ear Infirmary should say Amen, and should not accuse us of interfering in their legitimate sphere of usefulness.

Dr. Lee K. Frankel.— I would like to be on the committee to print this paper. I have visions of hundreds of people to whom I would like to send copies of the diagram which did not appear. I am somewhat timid about rising, especially as I represent one of those unfortunate societies that have been classified in E; but I am thankful that I do not belong in circle F. When I go back to New York, I think I shall have to try to get into D. But, to speak more seriously, there is possibly need to sound a note of warning. I cannot wholly agree with Mr. Riis in his address last night. I remember reading Charles Dudley Warner's "Back-log Studies," in which he speaks of the comforts of the fireside; and he refers to those

things we call registers, and asks, "How is it possible to bring up a family around a hole in the floor?" I have done some psychological reading, and I have still to find a single author who is willing to agree that hunger is psychical. It is purely physical. Cold is physical. The question of environment has been badly overworked; but we do come in contact with physical needs, and we are not to go away from this Conference with the impression that we shall be able to do away with those purely physical remedies for which so many demands are made. You cannot go into a tenement house without windows or air or ventilation, and even without God's sunlight, without feeling that in our work we must consider the physical factor along with the psychical factor.

Miss MARIA M. LOVE, Buffalo.— When that family force in the centre is a widow with six children, the eldest nine years old, there is no use in talking of work for the mother, because she has six children to look after. It was Miss Richmond who first suggested to me that it was poor policy to send that woman out to work and leave her children while you have two outer circles to call upon who might very well employ their resources in giving a pension to that personal family force, and hold that woman and her children together until the eldest one is old enough to work for their living. I want to speak a good word for those two forces which may be brought into A to help the family force.

Mr. FRANK TUCKER.— My one regret with regard to Miss Richmond's paper is that she did not begin where she left off. We might well take for granted all that she said. She has summed up in two words the whole matter,— the personal equation of the active worker. Co-operation divides itself into two parts,— the co-operation of agencies that are at work and the co-operation of forces that the representative of the agency brings into play to solve the problem. The co-operation of the agencies has not been touched at all. It seems to me that that is a step beyond the one Miss Richmond has taken. All these factors she mentioned must be brought into play by the representative of organized charity: therefore, it is a matter for the attention of the individual worker. I think we are making progress in the education of the worker. I am not quite so hopeful of progress in bringing about co-operation in active agencies,— that co-operation by which these forces are brought into play. In most communities the co-operation that exists is much like the situation in China to-day. There are several agencies quite willing to co-operate, provided the rest will co-operate according to the individual preference of the one; and the individual who is to be co-operated on has little to say. After all, what are we seeking for? What is our problem? What are we discussing here to-day? The care and relief of needy families in their homes. What are we trying to accomplish? We are seeking to restore to independence those who, by conditions within themselves or without themselves, have become dependent

upon the community. The vital question is, How are we to make these families once more independent, self-supporting members of the community? Right there this question of the co-operation of relief agencies becomes most important. These agencies represent various beliefs as to the best way. We have the Charities Organization Society expressing one belief as to the proper method. We have associations for improving the condition of the poor, representing the earliest methods of organized charity. We have relief societies pure and simple. Then we have public outdoor relief. To me the discussion would be much more interesting if we could discuss the proper relationship that ought to exist among these various activities. What should be the proper relationship between public outdoor relief and the Charities Organization Society, etc.? What co-operation should exist between them? Whether it is quite proper for the individual or the family to be subjected to the visitation of several agencies?

Mr. JAMES F. JACKSON, St. Paul.— The one thing on which I am a crank is personal service; but it is proper that we should not overlook the fact that machinery is necessary, and that we should not entirely underrate the public relief force, although public relief might better be abolished. Is it not an expression of the personal interest of the community?

We must have machinery, and there should be infused a large amount of heart, not only into its administration, but into its construction. One piece of machinery which helps wonderfully in St. Paul is the Associated Charities. It is a federated body which studies how to co-ordinate charity work. Not to exceed one-fourth of 1 per cent. of the public relief is granted without its investigation, and substantially no public or private relief is given without a report being made to this joint agency. We secure co-operation, in order that personal service may be more effective.

With regard to the best people (who are generally the worst sinners as to co-operation), the churches. Every month we report to every pastor in St. Paul the relief given to any of his parishioners during the preceding month. Thus they cannot ignore co-operation: the plan forces it on them. Most pastors welcome the information, and not a few bring us return reports. The plan is of value to our records; but its great value is to the needy of St. Paul, because it reduces duplication and points out need.

Mr. C. M. HUBBARD, Cincinnati.— With reference to what the last speaker has said, I would like to describe an institution that originated in Boston — where so many good things do originate — which has accomplished the purpose desired very well. We discovered it in this way. Three or four years ago in my own city it was found desirable to bring about a closer relationship between the different charitable organizations. An effort was made to bring together the presidents of the different boards and the leading

workers for discussion of ways and means of co-operating. But the movement died from lack of interest. Later the Associated Charities appointed a large committee on co-operation of charities, upon which was placed a representative from the board of every charitable institution in the city. Two meetings were held, and it was impossible to get any more. We learned about the Monday Evening Club of Boston, made up of the paid workers in the various charitable and philanthropic institutions of the city; and, after some investigation, we called a meeting of the charitable workers in the various institutions of our city, and adopted the constitution verbatim of the Boston club, and we are following it. Our club meets once a week, and listens to a discussion on the work of some one institution represented. After the paper has been read, going into details, there follow questions and answers and discussion; and each one goes away feeling that he knows something about the institution that has been described. It brings the workers together, so that they become personally acquainted. There is a sort of fellowship and interest in what each is doing, and it develops ways of co-operation which perhaps nothing else would. I think the method is to be commended. This is an age of specialists, but the best specialist should know something about work besides his own.

With regard to the method of co-operation between a charity organization society and a relief society, I conducted an investigation during the last year throughout the United States with the hope that we should be able to devise an ideal method. I find that the greatest satisfaction is expressed with the relations that exist when the relief society is willing to give upon the recommendation of the charity organization society or the associated charities, without reinvestigation. There should be that close co-operation. In the second place, it is found satisfactory when the relief society will give relief and discontinue it at the suggestion of the charity organization society. Third, it is desirable that the relief society should turn over the cases to the charity organization society for investigation, and not give relief without indorsement by the charity organization society, even when indorsement is given by other people. There should be such good fellowship that this co-operation could be brought about.

Mr. Homer Folks.— In observing the evident differences of opinion and frequent misunderstandings between those who approach the subject of the relief of needy families in their homes from a study of charity organization methods and those who approach it from the administration of material relief, it has often seemed to me that there is a bit of common ground between them, and that, if the two groups of people could first explore together this common ground, they would more readily reach a mutual understanding on the larger questions. The common ground I refer to is the subject of emergency relief.

The physician who is called upon to treat a patient must depend in the long run upon the natural forces within the patient himself,— his native powers of recuperation; but these may not do the first work. When the physician is first called, it often happens that the patient is in a state of acute distress which demands a certain amount of immediate treatment or relief. Frequently, he must have disagreeable medicines before the recuperative processes can begin their work. No physician would overlook this in actual practice, though many might do so in describing their treatment of disease. Are not the families who come to charitable societies for aid in an analogous condition? They have been going from bad to worse, until they are in a state of acute distress. Is it not often true that, unless something is done promptly, matters will get much worse? I know that Miss Richmond does not overlook the fact that, when these forces in the inner circles cannot be set into operation immediately,— and it often takes a little time for a neighborhood force to be set in motion, — then something must be done to bring the family into a condition in which the neighborhood forces can operate and be effective. Is there not in the usual statements of the charity organization doctrine a tendency to omit a full treatment of this phase of the subject, and would not a fuller treatment of it be a method of easy approach for those who are more directly engaged in the administration of material relief or who take up the subject from that point of view? It seems to me that no one thing would do more to bring about a more general acceptance of charity organization doctrine than a fuller statement of its principles and practice in the first steps in dealing with families who are in acute distress.

Mr. Frederic Almy.— I think we need to let go more in charity, to trust others more. We tell our friendly visitors to trust the poor more, and to believe in their best side; but we do not ourselves trust in our friendly visitors. We find in Buffalo that our district committees hesitate to surrender a family to a friendly visitor or to a church committee, and that in the same way, when a family is referred to a church pastor, he finds it hard to let go or trust others with the responsibility of their care. He is afraid they will do all wrong, and does not realize that they will learn only by doing. We cannot expect other people to put on our spectacles, and see always as we do. We must offer the message of intelligent charity to all charity workers, and then trust their judgment and allow them some responsibility, if we expect to keep their interest, and so lead them to better methods.

Mr. T. E. Ellison, Indianapolis.— I want to call attention to co-operation in Indiana. We have the associated charities, but we have taken a step in addition to that. Every township trustee is an overseer of the poor. Every bit of relief given in the state is kept track of in a report to the State Board of Charities; and we have a card catalogue of every individual, and, to quite an extent, of their

families, to whom anything is given in the state. We have a gentleman who has reduced the amount of relief given in his township 97 per cent. The catalogue is accessible to every society all over the state. We are saving hundreds of thousands of dollars by these records. They are not asked politely if they will keep these records, but they are told by the board that they must do it. It is expensive, but it pays; and we know that the poor are relieved, and that all share the benefits.

Dr. S. G. SMITH, St. Paul.— A word about pensions. The trouble about them is that you can have as many widows with six children as you want to pension, and you can multiply that number. That method was tried in England. They pensioned children in England; but they had just so many more illegitimate children because they did, and they had to reform the poor-law in England. One gentleman says that hunger is not a psychical force. That is true. It is a brute fact; but often it evidences the question that we do need to talk about,— namely, how the hunger was produced, how it came to be, and what forces can be set in motion to prevent it. I had occasion to make some calls on people living in shanties. I called at three or four, perhaps; and at one place I found clean lace curtains at the windows, a cradle in the corner, a geranium in the window, and everything scrupulously clean, and the young mother with that glorious beauty that belongs to young maternity. I hinted at the difference between this home and the miserable shanties that I had seen; and she said, "Don't you know me?" I said, "No." "Why," she said, "I am Maggie. I was trained in your industrial school." What we want economically is not more production, is not better distribution,— that is all useful,— but, as charity workers, we are interested in the problem of waste. What is wasted by the poor would keep the poor comfortable. What is wasted by the rich would make the poor rich if they had it.

Miss Richmond was asked to close the discussion.

Miss RICHMOND.— I hold in my hand a number of slips containing suggestions as to the way in which I shall spend this last five minutes, but I cannot take any of them. First, a word of apology. The lecture originally prepared to accompany the diagram was an hour long, and had to be compressed here into fifteen minutes. Many of the things that you complain are omitted were in the original, though not, perhaps, in a form to please my critics. "Always remember, my son," said a sage to his pupil, "that both extremes are true,— not the one or the other, but both." I gave you one extreme at the beginning. Let me close with the other. I have been an official of a private charity for many years; and, naturally enough, the work seems to me most useful and most important. One has a better opportunity in our work than in any other, it seems to me, to

turn men's minds from the old ways of thinking of humanity to newer and better ways; but it cannot be done by placing ourselves and our work at the centre.

There seems to have been some doubt as to my faith in relief. Now relief is a capital servant, but a very bad master. It is needed at every turn, but I feel toward it as Dr. Weir Mitchell feels toward his drugs. He should be sorry to do without them; but, if he had to choose between them and the power of regulating the patient's diet and habits of life, he'd let the drugs go. Luckily, he adds, no physician is forced to make the choice; nor are we, though we make it too often the wrong way without being forced.

We should not close such a meeting as this without mention of one of the most important results ever achieved by charitable co-operation. Under the splendid leadership of the New York Charity Organization Society, that city has just secured the passage of a new tenement law that should revolutionize housing conditions among the poor in the next ten years. In this splendid achievement a charitable society has proved itself not only a charitable force in circle E, but a civic and neighborhood force of the very highest value.

SECOND SECTION MEETING.

NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

Monday morning, May 13.

Miss Zilpha D. Smith, chairman of the section, presiding.

Mr. GLENN.— One of the great pleasures of the Conference is in having delegates from our sister country, Cuba, who have come to learn what they can and to bring what they can from Cuba. I have asked Dr. Martinez to give a brief statement in regard to medical charities in Cuba.

Dr. MARTINEZ.— Accepting the kind invitation given by our lady chairman, I will only make a few remarks concerning medical relief such as is given in Cuba. I come, with my fellow-delegates in this Congress, to learn, and not to teach. All I hope to do is to prove that we make good scholars. Personally, I am connected with the management of one of the large dispensaries of Havana; and I want to say a good word for the dispensaries for the poor.

It was established by government funds, but later on it can sustain itself by its own resources, so that it receives but a very small subsidy from the government. Then it can be classified as a private institution. The result we have obtained from this dispensary is the

great work done for women and children. I do not know if it is so in other countries, but with us women and children have a repulsion to going to hospitals. It may be accounted for because hospitals were not taken care of in other times. In the dispensary we have treated more women and children than are treated in all the hospitals. This is not a mere statement. I can give you that in figures. Comparing the first quarter of one of our largest civil hospitals, No. 1, I find that they had a total of 1,065 patients, of which 225 were women and 34 were children. In our dispensary in the same time 2,425 were treated, of which 1,635 were women and 462 were children. While 21 per cent. of women are treated in the hospitals, 61 per cent. are treated in the dispensary. Of children, we have attended 18 per cent., whereas only 3 per cent. have been treated in the hospital. A dispensary comes closer to the family than a hospital. It attends the patient in his own home. If we compare dispensaries and hospitals, which are we to have? It is a question of dispensaries *versus* hospitals. I think we should get rid of our hospitals, and come down to mere dispensaries. This lesson from nature, of which I have told you, has received its explanation in this Conference. Miss Richmond has spoken about the family forces. We are trying to do something to imitate it. When a man is taken to a hospital, the family is broken up; but treat him in his own home, and the family is not broken up, and that is much better. The physician must make use of these family forces to bear upon his own case, and I am sure he will treat him better. Physicians do not always cure with drugs: more is done with advice. It goes further than medicines. That is the ideal treatment,—to treat the patient in his home. Of course, it is impossible to do it immediately. There must be a great preparation. We must come slowly to that point, but I think the dispensary comes nearer to the point than the hospitals. Our object would be to make use of the organized charities to attend patients in their homes in every way possible, and not to carry them away to hospitals, and in the mean time to have the dispensaries well organized and on practical lines to gain the same object. Of course there are a great many objections to dispensaries. I am not going to discuss them. I am discussing the dispensary as a charity worker, not as a doctor. There is one method of doing away with abuse, and that is the investigation of cases in their homes. If there is an announcement that cases will be investigated in their homes, many cases would not be investigated. The announcement would be sufficient. The dispensaries would then be for the poor, and not for the rich.

The Chairman, Miss SMITH.—It seems that dispensaries are an unusual form of relief in Cuba. That certainly would not occur to workers in New York or Boston.

Miss Smith then introduced Dr. Lee K. Frankel, manager of the

United Hebrew Charities of New York City, who gave an address on "Unusual Forms of Relief" (page 314).

Miss Mary L. Birtwell, Cambridge, Mass.— It is evident from what Dr. Frankel has said that the society he represents is not bound by rules and regulations or restricted by tradition to stereotyped forms of relief. But I think most of you will bear me out in saying that the relief societies on whose co-operation charity organization workers must depend for the most part are bound by such rules and tradition. If we want aid in any unusual form or amount, generally we cannot get it from the regular organized societies, but are obliged to "organize" it. We may get part of it from the relief society; but most of it must be solicited from churches, employers, and other private sources. Now the principle to be kept always in mind is the very same that has been reiterated again and again since Friday last. In questions of relief, as in other lines of work, we must consider the case from the point of view of the family rather than the resources at our command. One of the first lessons I learned from Miss Smith years ago was not to use a resource simply because it existed. Some people's charity reminds me of the women who shop at bargain counters: they buy what they don't need simply because it is cheap. Often the relief given to our poor people is easily obtained; but, I fear, it doesn't always meet the real need of the family we are trying to help. There are two things to be done to render our relief work more effective. The work of the relief societies must be developed in the line of greater elasticity, and the community must be educated to give more intelligently,— especially must they be educated out of the habit of dole-giving, and be taught the value of adequate relief. We must not be afraid to ask a relief society for a thing it has never done before. In some department stores, if an article not in stock is called for three times the same day, the employee must report it or render himself liable to discharge. If we think a certain kind or amount of relief ought to be given, let us call upon the relief society to give it, even if we feel sure our request will not be granted. And, if the need arise again, let us make our appeal again and yet again. In the end we may gain that for which we ask. How else shall the relief societies measure the real needs of the community? It seems to me that two of the most essential qualifications for this work are ingenuity and the courage of our convictions. A woman whom I knew died, leaving four helpless children and a more helpless father. She had been a dressmaker before her marriage, and had bought a house. On her deathbed she had said to a friend, who was a cook in a private family, "The lady you live with is such a kind woman, I should die happy if she would look after my children." I said, "I will give this lady a chance." When I presented the situation to her, she replied, "Well, I hadn't thought of adopting four children; but, really, there's

no reason why I shouldn't do as you ask." So she was made guardian of the children and executor of the estate. She advanced money for repairs, paid part of the board of the children, and rendered other valuable service. As a result, in a few years, when the boulevard is completed and the property appreciates in value, the children will have an income of about three hundred dollars a year. In the mean time we are in communication with relatives in California with whose help we hope to perfect plans by which permanent homes will be secured for the children among their relatives.

Rev. CLARK CARTER, Lawrence, Mass.— An unusual form of relief has been making its demand upon us, and the cause of it is one which has not been suggested here. It is worth advertising. In the change of methods of carrying on manufacturing business in our neighborhood, an individual laborer suffers from every disadvantage or embarrassment of the corporation. Of course, it has always been the rule that the people at the head had their salaries by the year; but the other workers were also thought of, and it was the intention of the managers to keep the works running, if possible, so that the employees should have a fair living. But, in the reorganization of industries, it has become the practice to employ only so much labor and only so many months as may be regarded necessary. An individual is nominally an employee of the mill. He comes Monday, and is told that he is not wanted till Wednesday. He cannot go off and take another mill or another place, because he would lose that job. He goes Wednesday and does his work, and then is laid off till next week. There are women who go in the morning, and are told that their work is not ready for them; but they must wait there,— say till ten o'clock. And many times the woman who has children, and who could have worked for them with great advantage, has spent the whole forenoon and got no pay, without the opportunity of doing anything, so that the pay is reduced from the nominal week's pay of from $4 to $6 a week to the actual fifty cents to $4 or $5 a week. To me it is a problem which has been practically presented new in the last twelve months. I would be glad to know if any one has any light in that direction. It is a problem which is going to grow upon us. Once a man hired a man as his friend, and treated him as his friend. A manufactory started, and people came in from New Hampshire and Vermont and Massachusetts, from the country towns into the factory towns; and everything was done to make people comfortable. Homes were built for them. Good corporation houses were constructed. Now the corporations are selling their houses,— throwing people on their own resources and the individual worker on charity.

Miss MARION I. MOORE, Buffalo, N.Y.— There is one point I would like to present to the Conference, not that it is new, but because it has been forcibly impressed upon me during the past two years. All agree that a family, when distress and misfortune come,

should be kept together, unless the conditions of the home life are pernicious and detrimental to the welfare of the family. In that case it should be broken up.

In the case of a widow with a number of small children, charity workers generally agree that the home should be preserved if possible, that the mother should do some work to support the family, and that, where she cannot earn sufficient (as in most cases), her earnings should be supplemented by relief. As a rule, the amount of relief given is small and irregularly granted.

In most families the mother who goes out working by the day is obliged to be away from home from early morning till late in the evening, and nearly every day in the week. If there be a day nursery near by, she takes the younger children there, the older ones looking after themselves; but, if that is not the case, the older children care for the younger. What is the result of this mode of living upon the home life? What training do the children receive when left to their own ways? They are given no special care or training, as the mother has not time to be with them.

Many a good, conscientious mother, trying to bring up her children so that they will be good men and women, has said to me: What can I do for my children, when I am away working every day? I have no time to look after them, to mend their clothes, to care for the house, to know what they are doing. Johnnie is now going with bad boys. Mary no longer cares for the house and younger children,— wants to play and be on the street all day.

Would it not be better for the home life and the future welfare of the children if the mother remained at home to care for the children, and sufficient relief for the ordinary living purposes be given her? See that an adequate pension be given regularly so long as the children are young, and the mother is doing her best to carefully bring them up. When possible, the mother might add to the income by doing a little work at home.

I grant that to give adequate pensions to all dependent women with children would be unwise, and would not improve the home life. But I do believe there are a goodly number of good, patient, God-fearing women who are struggling to provide for their children who ought to be helped in the way I suggest.

Miss SMITH.—Dr. Frankel spoke of the need of great care near the beginning in starting in business. It has often seemed to me that the point for greatest care in giving pensions was at the end. Perhaps the question how to close a pension may be discussed.

Rev. E. EVANS-CARRINGTON, Colorado Springs.— In the city in which I live we are making an attempt to meet the conditions to which our attention has been called this morning. We have our general fund, which we use for the ordinary forms of relief. And we have a special fund,— sometimes with very little in the treasury,— but it is a special fund for the purpose of meeting exceptional cases;

so that we can take each case, study it carefully, and deal with it on its merits. If we relieve these special cases out of our general fund, our calls increase very rapidly, and there is a general demand for special relief. The difficulty is in knowing where to draw the line. One advantage in the adoption of the special fund for special cases is this: we can go to people who are interested in certain lines of work, lay the case before them, and leave it to their judgment. We have a few wealthy people who are very glad to respond in cases of that kind, when they are satisfied that a thorough investigation has been made. We usually consult practical business men and women as to the course to be adopted, and we have succeeded fairly well.

We have in Colorado Springs a number of women coming every year (some of them delicate and refined), expecting that, as soon as they strike the Rockies, they will regain health, and find, without much difficulty, suitable employment by which to support themselves. Sometimes they have sick husband and children to provide for. It is our special trouble to know how to deal with these cases. The influx seems to increase every year.

I have in mind a plan by which we may possibly succeed in measurably meeting this peculiar need and overcoming the difficulty. Our purpose is to provide them a certain amount of work, such as these women can do, say for three or four hours a day. Pay them in cash or in kind, as may be best for them, thus giving them a little to count on without requiring them to be away from home all the day. This makes it possible for them to supplement our aid in other ways by their own efforts. The other agencies we have supplemental to this will enable us, we hope, to deal with these cases with some appreciable degree of success. The money we shall need for this class of relief ought not to be taken out of our general fund, perhaps; and we are counting on special gifts for the purpose.

Our wood-yard we have been running for some time, and for this money has been given us as a business proposition. Out of the revenue of the wood-yard we have paid the running expenses of the City Hotel, which is our rooming-house and eating-house for stranded men who are willing to work.

With regard to pensions I think there is danger, and they may degenerate into outdoor relief under another name. Our practice in regard to loans has not been an entire success. No one, I suppose, has met with entire success; but we have had some gratifying results. We have lent money without interest for short periods, have sometimes obtained security, and at other times have taken the applicant's own note. I would like to emphasize the fact that often it means a great deal to the man himself for him to give his note. On the other hand, it means nothing but a delusion or deliberate deception for a person to come and, with an air of self-importance, say, "I would like this as a loan, not as charity," without the remotest probability of his being able to repay it, and too frequently with no intention of doing so.

Granting a loan as a business matter, taking a note, and letting the borrower have all the time really necessary to pay, we have found to be helpful in our work.

Mr. J. M. HANSON, Kansas City.— We have had a little experience in Kansas City in starting people in business. The experiment has been exceedingly encouraging; and it leads us to believe that that line of work should be extended, but under careful supervision. We have a family consisting of a man and wife. The wife is a cripple, the husband a painter who had become poisoned with the lead, so that he was unfit for service. The wife made a living by canvassing for books. But it really amounted to begging, because she told her hard-luck story; and in most cases a small sum was given to her instead of giving an order for a book. She had become a nuisance, and it was a great problem to know how to deal with her. Finally, we interested ourselves in her, and procured a loan for the purpose of starting them in a little business. Just as we were ready to invest the money, we found a stand about to be vacated where there had been a dairy and bakery. We purchased the fixtures for a small sum, and started them with a limited stock of confectionery, dairy, and bakery goods. With an investment of about one hundred dollars they became self-sustaining. There were living-rooms in the back part of the store, and the rent was low. They took hold with enthusiasm, and agreed to allow us to superintend the work. So every week I made it a point to call there and check up, and see how the expenditures and the income were balancing. In many instances I helped them in replenishing their stock. Provision was made that the stock should belong to us until the loan was repaid, and that gave us an opportunity to examine the books at any time and to dictate in large measure as to how the business should be conducted. While it seemed very unpromising in the start, yet they have surprised us from the very beginning, because they have made a success; and they are beginning now to pay that loan, after eight months in the business. In that case the whole situation was at once changed. The attitude of mind was changed through their occupation, and their health at once improved. The man is beginning to work at his trade again, and the prospect is that they are about to accumulate something.

In another instance, where we started a family in the same line of business, they have not been so successful because of sickness in the family. The woman was very weak herself,— had been running a sewing-machine until she was completely broken down. She had to support a blind mother and an invalid daughter and a boy who had been selling papers on the street until his voice gave out. Nevertheless, they have not had one penny's aid since the investment was made. They will not be able to pay the loan for some months; but they are interested in their business, and are continuing well and doing well.

A third instance was where we started a man in the coal and feed business. He has worked it up until now he has a stock which is worth three or four times the investment.

Mr. W. H. McClain, St. Louis.— We lay great stress upon our laundry and sewing-rooms as agencies for training people to become self-supporting. Our wood-yard has also been very helpful as a labor test, and all of these agencies have added to the income of our association. The earnings of our industrial agencies last year were over $14,000. In other words, we have made the beneficiaries contribute $14,000 toward their own support. Our association also maintains two day nurseries, two kindergartens, a supply department, cheap baths for men, women, and children, and an economic school, all of which are made useful in our work.

One of the most important agencies in connection with our industrial work is the department for training those who come under our care. For instance, in the laundry, the usual facilities for doing laundry work are used; and, in addition to this, we have built a special room to be used for training laundresses. This room is divided into compartments 10 x 12 feet square, in which we have an ordinary laundry stove, wash-boiler, wash-tubs, clothes' lines, and such other appliances as will be found in any laundry in a private home. Women are placed in these rooms, and given a complete wash to do. They are instructed how to do the washing, the ironing, how to keep up the fire, put out the clothes, and, in fact, all departments of the laundry work. When they are competent, they are sent to private homes to do regular laundry work. But, in order that they may do the best class of work, the superintendent of our laundry visits them during the day, so that she may see if there are any conditions in the home with which they are not familiar, and give additional advice and assistance. After they have completed a six months' course in this kind of training, and have been trained in homes, they are given a certificate, and are, of course, no longer dependent upon our organization for assistance or employment; and we have given them an occupation by which they can earn a livelihood.

This system of training is also pursued in our sewing-rooms. The better class of applicants are trained to use the ordinary sewing-machines, and later are trained to use the electric power sewing-machines. They work upon the class of goods that are usually made in factories; and, when they are able to make a complete garment and command good positions in the factories of our city, they are made self-supporting.

We feel that, when we have given dependants the means of earning a livelihood, we have done more for them than should we supply their wants year in and year out.

Mrs. E. R. Whiting, Secretary Union Religious Society, Springfield, Mass.— We have come sometimes upon individual cases where

property was held in mortgage. The first case that I will mention was that of a woman who was ill of a chronic disease. Her family consisted of a daughter twenty years old and a son fourteen. After the mother became too ill to work and the daughter's time was demanded in the care of her, there was no income; and application was made to us for food for the family. Investigation showed that after her husband died, some few years before, she had been obliged to put a mortgage on the house they had bought and paid for; but the equity was enough to take care of her for some time. At the time the case came to us the mortgagee was threatening foreclosure, and that meant the almshouse for the woman. We put a second mortgage on the place, thus putting enough funds into the hands of the daughter to pay expenses and make her mother comfortable. The mother died after a few months. Her place was sold, the mortgages paid, and the daughter had four or five hundred dollars left above the mortgage.

The next case was that of a widow who had a small equity in her property. When the case was brought to our attention, the woman had not money enough to buy sufficient food, and was behind with her interest. Her house contained two tenements. She rented one and lived in the other, but the property had become so run down for want of repairs that she had difficulty in renting. We put a second mortgage on, which enabled her to pay her interest and repair her tenements. We then advised her to rent them both and take a room, which would be cheaper. This she did. In course of time her house was sold, and she entered the Old Ladies' Home on the money left after paying up her mortgages and bills. In the third instance the husband was ill, went to the insane asylum, and then died. The second mortgage in this case relieved the person, and made the family comfortable after the man was taken away. After his death there was a small life insurance. When we took up the case, we were able to help the woman rent her tenement, which, owing to lack of management, had stood vacant for some time. In this case the woman, who was delicate in health and had a young babe besides two little girls to care for, had become much discouraged. Our timely assistance put new life into her, so that, in spite of the grief on account of her husband's sad condition of health, she took up the burden of life again with renewed vigor.

Our experience has been very encouraging thus far. It strikes me that the unusual means of relief are just the work for a charity organization society. There are organizations sufficient to supply the regular needs of all the people. But it is for the charity organization workers by their ingenuity to find some special way of relief; and I, personally, am interested in those cases where some unusual means must be found.

There is another bit of work we do. We rarely lend money, but often stand behind the family. In the matter of coal we aid people

a good many times who can pay for the coal a little at a time. So we stand behind them for half a ton of coal, and they bring us the money in small sums. It is charged to their names, not to ours. We guarantee the coal dealer, and often the grocer, and sometimes the landlord with rent.

Miss ANNA F. HUNTER, Newport, R.I.— I would like to be able in a minute or two to unite the idea of two of our section meetings,— that is, special relief and the line which should be drawn between public and private relief. It seems to me that special relief, or relief in special cases, is best applied by private charity. We have spoken of the widows and large families of children being pensioned. We, of course, have such families in Newport; and in one case a widow was allowed a weekly grocery order and coal for a number of years by the overseers. The eldest child became old enough to be earning something. It was a bad example for the overseers to continue to support a family who could be making an effort for themselves. But the children were exceptionally bright, and we wanted them to have a better education than they could have if they were put to work right away. So the Charity Organization decided that this was a case for private charity; and, while the overseers had not said a word about giving up the case, we begged them to do so for the sake of example. And the help was guaranteed by a lady who took an interest in the family; and, as a fact, about the same amount, $100 a year, was spent upon this family by that particular lady as had been spent by the overseers. In all our cases of special need we try to have them attended to by private charity.

Mr. BENJAMIN PETTEE, Massachusetts.— The overseers of the poor in Boston have in a number of cases given unusual relief. Two were where young men lost their legs in railroad accidents. They were citizens of Boston. In the first case, after the leg had healed, it was found that the man could do nothing unless he had an artificial leg. The fact was reported to Boston, and in that case the thing was successful. In the second case the man was brought on to Boston — both accidents having occurred in the western part of the state — to have his leg examined and see what sort of a limb would be best for him; for it was decided that he should have one. He was placed in the almshouse until the leg should be made and fitted. After it was fitted, a place was found for him to work on a farm in the neighborhood. A short time after, the farmer came in and said that the man had disappeared. It happened that the man went into the house and found some money there. Either the man or the leg was at fault. At any rate, the leg had skipped with the man and the man with the money. We sometimes furnish trusses. There are several women in Boston who have been relieved in this way. The matter of transportation is rather unusual for the overseers of the poor in Boston. In New York it is said that a great many people are sent there by other towns and states.

Mr. GEORGE S. WILSON, District of Columbia.— I want to say how much I have been impressed, since this discussion has been going on, with the fundamental principles of charity organization work. All the special forms of relief have brought us back to these simple principles,— the question of adequate relief and permanent relief. As Dr. Frankel has said, after all, it is not anything so special or so unusual, looked at from the charity organization standpoint. What we need here in Washington is the volunteer committee and the volunteer visitors; and the volunteer band, using that ingenuity, will, after all, work out in each particular case the very kind of relief needed. As we say in charity organization, the relief should be suited to the need.

Dr. FRANKEL.— One or two questions have been propounded which I find impossible to answer, particularly the question, What would happen by a change in the industrial conditions due to the development of trusts? Probably many would agree that the best form of relief would be the abolition of trusts. I hardly think that enters into the discussion. Mr. Paine is quoted as saying that charity workers should possess two qualities, originality and courage. I want to add a third, common sense. The giving of relief is the application of the best common sense to the problem we have under discussion. After all, there is but a gradation between the man who is dependent and the man who is independent; and we ought to treat him as a purely normal factor, precisely as we would treat ourselves. For that reason the unusual in relief-giving is only unusual to the extent that it may be applied to some particular case. The *principles* underlying relief-giving must follow the principles of organized charity under which we are all working. It is immaterial whether the relief comes in the form of a pension or in the form of a large amount of money. We must remember that investigation is an absolute necessity, that, where it can be possible to have a friendly visitor, it should be added to that investigation; and, in fact, the entire outline of all that we understand to-day by charity organization is to be developed.

I merely wish to add a word about pensions,— not their beginning, but their ending. There is nothing more insidious than a pension. The family comes on your hands; and, when it is on your hands, it is very difficult to get rid of. The only thing to do is to apply common sense. There must be investigation constantly. Whether it is investigation by a friendly visitor or by a paid official is immaterial, but there must be constant supervision. Where we find that relief is no longer necessary and where we can develop those forces mentioned by Miss Richmond, the home force and the personal force, so that they may be graduated into the inner circles, we may at once remove them from the outer circle represented by the relief society.

THIRD SECTION MEETING.

NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

Wednesday, May 15, 11 A.M.

The subject for the morning was Friendly Visiting.

In calling the section to order, the chairman, Miss Zilpha D. Smith, spoke as follows: —

There is a great deal of visiting which is friendly which we do not include in our definition of "friendly visiting." The district nurses, kindergartners, and savings collectors visit among the poor; but their interest is chiefly on one side of their life, and may be dropped at any time. The friendly visitor visits very few families,— two or three, or possibly four; but her intercourse with them is on many sides, and, if she is a successful visitor, the tie grows, so that it is difficult to break. Some of the family visit her. She writes to them, perhaps; and they write to her, if either is absent. The time limit is that of their friendship: when the circumstances of one friend or the other change, it does not necessarily mean that the intercourse is broken. The friendly visitor is associated with the family, and not with a district. Those who speak to us to-day have been asked to tell little incidents which give the spirit of their relation rather than to show striking results.

Experiences were related by volunteer visitors, six ladies and two gentlemen, from Baltimore, Boston, Buffalo, Chicago, St. Paul, and Washington, D.C. A few of these stories are given here, in the hope that they may help other visitors; but names of visitors, cities and families, are omitted or changed to safeguard what are essentially private matters.

A FAMILY OF SEVEN.

Four years ago a friend and I were looking for children to attend a Christmas entertainment, wanting to select children who would have no other Christmas celebration. We went into a disreputable part of the city, where, in a miserable house, we came across the family I am to describe,— husband, wife, and five children, the oldest seven. The mother had been sick for a long time, and was thoroughly discouraged. The children had no shoes, no stockings,— nothing on but colored slips. The mother wore a wretched gown, her hair all over her shoulders,— one of the most pitiful objects I ever saw. She had absolutely lost hope. Our first thought was to arrange that these children should go to the Christmas tree, and we did that with little

difficulty and no expense. The children went to the tree,— the first time they had ever been on a street-car or had ever seen anything outside the filthy alley, which was so vile that it must have taken the life out of a child or a grown person.

I visited the family often, and found, as we so often find in our needy families, that the man was a great drawback. In fact, in my experience, covering a good many years, the man usually looms up in the background as a pest we cannot get rid of. The man was here, as usual. His wife wanted to get out of these surroundings. She wanted to hear something besides oaths. She wanted to be outside the drunkenness and debauchery. Now that was hopeful and cheerful, still we could not move the man. It suited him to stay. He was ignorant and boorish in every way, and those conditions were what he wanted.

After much consideration and thought, we took a very serious step. We put the children in a church orphan home temporarily, and the mother went to a friend. That brought the man to his senses. And right here I want to say the way the poor love their home is the most touching thing in all my work. It does not make any difference how wretched it is, it is home. We know what that means to us, what the thought of it brings to our minds: it brings hardly less to theirs. I have taken children from homes the misery of which was beyond description into the beautiful country, and they would go out and look toward their home and weep, though surrounded by everything lovely and comfortable. There is no place to them like home: it is a sacred place, and this idea must be preserved.

There is another thing to be considered. We have no right to go into a home and criticise the way it is conducted, or by the least word or hint of superior plans indicate that their home is not what it should be. We can approve of what is good, and we can make remarks about what a home means and what it is going to do in the community; but we must not go in and criticise their knowledge (or lack of knowledge) of housekeeping.

Well, we took these children into the orphan asylum and the mother to a friend; and, as I have said, the father came to his senses. If the mother would come back and bring the children back, he would try to do better and move into another locality. They had lived a long time in this miserable alley, opening out of a court, where they could see nothing but back sheds. They were not degraded, debauched, nor drunken,— simply poor. The man was working for very small wages, and they had no means to pay more rent. After looking a long time every day, I found a home for them in an open street, where God's sunshine was free and they could at least breathe. They are now living in this open street, in a poor house; but the rooms are large and airy, sunny and clean.

As time went on, two years or so, there was something besides poverty that troubled the family. I found it out only through ex-

changing experiences and ideas, gaining myself a great deal more than the woman did, I have no doubt. What was it that troubled her? I could not question her. I had to let it go, and wait until she had confidence to tell me what it was. By the end of two years she visited me as often as I did her, and we had long talks; but I never could get at the trouble. Finally, she came to see me one day; and, after staying all the morning and to lunch, she said that she had something to tell me, and then it came out that her eldest daughter was the bone of discord. The father could not bear this child: she antagonized him, and the mother wanted to keep her out of his sight. She annoyed the mother, too. You cannot imagine what it cost the mother to tell me these things. The father was absolutely brutish. He was never known to say a kind word to the children, especially to this daughter. His every word was an oath. He abused her for every mouthful she ate. He told her constantly that the time was coming when she would have to earn her living on the street. You can think what the influence was on the child. She was bold, brazen, and they had lost all control over her. We thought the matter over very carefully; and, after much writing, we got the child into a very small industrial church home, and she has been there over a year. The transformation in the girl is remarkable. Instead of being an annoyance and irritation, she is a great comfort and pleasure; and in time the girl will be an honor to the family.

I have told this story because our really best work is to uplift without material aid. This family is one which was in perfect degradation four years ago, and had then lost all hope. The woman was drifting into despair and sin. To-day she is living in a clean and wholesome home, and the children are growing up into good men and women, who will be a comfort to that whole community or to other communities. Such instances as these are very common among friendly visitors. They take a great deal of time and patience. Our work is personal work, home work, improving the social conditions of the family, along with other conditions; and that requires time and patience.

I might add in conclusion that I have received much assistance in my work from the fortnightly meetings of a society of friendly visitors in my church, which is really a training school for visitors. We compare experiences, ask each other's advice, and use also Miss Richmond's book on "Friendly Visiting."

A REAL FRIEND.

My friend is a woman who was referred to us four years ago by the district nurse as being in a very hard way, with a worthless husband out of work and two children sick with scarlet fever. There was no money coming in and no prospect of any. The woman was

from New England,— a foolish, sentimental, pulpy kind of person, who had had several husbands, and had married the last one several months before, although he had no work, was many years younger than herself, and his sole asset was a peanut stand, which, of course, he could not live on. She was the kind who had no definite will or purpose; and her two strong features were her reserve, amounting to mystery, and her love for her two little girls, Ellen and Ann, whom she had renamed Flossie and Estelle.

When I first went to see her, she had sent off her husband because she said he was rough to the children,— sent him back to his mother; and she and the little girls were starving along in one dirty and untidy room. She would take no help except what she worked for, and I found that she was always scrupulously honest. She would let the children buy cake and bread at a bakery for a cent, because, though they got a great deal more than a cent's worth, she felt it was honest. Although she took great pride in the children's progress at school, she would let them snatch their dinner off the stove; and their clothes, which she worked at constantly, were pretty, but not tidy. When I remonstrated with her for letting them run around the streets at all hours, as she did, and taking them with her to a rescue mission to hear the confessions of the men and women there, she would say that it would help make them to be good to hear the wrong-doing of others.

They had a joyful month in the country through the Country Week; and, on the strength of the good it had done, I persuaded her to try a farm-house for the winter, where we made a good arrangement for her to work. It was not a success, however; and in the spring they all came back. I should say here that she was the kind of disappointing person who never did things on time; and it took three tries on different days to get her, the children, and their things finally to the train in time.

When she came back to the city, there was *no* work; and so she finally agreed to send the children to the country in the charge of the Children's Aid Society, while she went out to service and paid all that she could toward their board.

I don't feel that I know thoroughly her past; for, at times, she would begin to tell me her story, and confess a great deal of wrong-doing, and then would stop, saying she couldn't, even to me. She had all the time a well-to-do brother in the city, whom she wouldn't go to, because she said she was ashamed,— she would starve first,— and at times she would give me incredible accounts of the family traits. I asked to be allowed to communicate with her family, but she would never let me.

During the last two years I heard from her at intervals, when she went from one place to another, always telling me of the fine progress of the children and her affection for me, her one friend. This spring she came to see me, and I didn't recognize her.

In place of the frowsy, unkempt, pinned-together woman whom I had thought it vital to present with tooth-brushes as my first Christmas gifts, I found a lady in a nice-fitting coat and skirt, a neat hat, gold-bowed glasses, and whole gloves. She was in town, having first got a new situation at $4 a week, and had the chance to come to see me. She was going to be near the girls, so that she could see them often. The elder one now cost nothing, and she paid $2 for Estelle. Flossie was so good at her lessons that she hoped she might go to college.

If a backbone can be inserted into a human being, I should incline to think that this was one of the cases where it had been done. At any rate, the cause, in the woman's eyes, of her happiness and good fortune is the possession of a real friend,— her first.

HOME BUILDING AND HOUSE BUILDING.

The family consists of father, mother, and six children, ranging in age from four to twenty. My acquaintance with them began in the fall of 1894. The father had been out of work for some time. An unskilled laborer, with little energy and no ambition, he was indeed most frequently numbered among the unemployed. The mother, an energetic, hard-working woman, was just then kept at home by the three-weeks-old baby. Her reputation for industry was such that, when able to work, she had more places than one could fill, and in the effort to be both provider and home-keeper had seriously injured her health. Necessarily, her own home was the last to be tidied. The children had old and care-worn faces. Life had thus far been only hardship to them.

The family had been recipients of relief, both public and private, and were rapidly falling into a condition where for the father to be out of employment seemed inevitable, and for the family to be cared for by others, the natural and easy way of living. The mother complained bitterly because various of the alms-givers had bestowed more and better gifts upon neighbors than upon herself, when, in her estimation, these neighbors were neither so deserving nor needy; and, before our acquaintance had developed into friendship, she asked me to intercede for her, stating at length reasons why she was entitled to receive: she had more children than the neighbors in question; they were more sickly; she herself, as well as her husband, was broken in health, besides being out of work, and many other equally important pleas. The thought of getting as much as possible for nothing had become the all-absorbing one; and both she and her husband busied themselves in planning how best to present their need in order to awaken most sympathy, never realizing that their own and their children's self-respect and independence were being jeopardized.

So the problem before me was to awaken ambition in the father, to

direct the attention of the mother to the beautiful scope of her opportunities in the home, and to preserve the family intact. After many attempts, I succeeded in impressing them with the importance of regarding the future welfare of the children as well as their present comfort.

They were persuaded to become depositors in the provident fund. Beginning with a deposit of five cents each week, they soon increased to twenty-five; and no one ever watched a growing bank account with more satisfaction than they. Now, the money saved in this way is sufficient to purchase the family clothing. This independence was not reached without much effort and many failures. Often, when want threatened, they grew faint-hearted and were tempted by visions of the old way of doing. A little timely encouragement kept alive the germ of self-dependence until it developed into an honest pride in caring for the family.

A position was secured for Carl, the eldest boy. He was well liked, and at the end of two years was promoted. But soon after he became dissatisfied with the pay, and left the place. His mother grew bitter over this, and reproached him constantly. At last he found work, but the influences were bad. His summer of idleness made it easy for him to go wrong. A part of his work took him into saloons. He grew to drinking and was out every evening, often remaining away all night. Sociably inclined, he demanded more companionship than was offered at home. The family lived in a house of two small rooms,— not one homelike feature anywhere. All slept in one room. Dirt and disorder reigned. Whenever Carl came home, he was met by a storm of wrath from both parents, and at times even the children joined in. For was not he wasting the money that should have gone for their food and clothing? The disappointment of losing his wages, coupled with an undefined but very real fear for his future, made the mother almost frantic. Two problems now presented themselves,— the unfitness of the home and the want of capacity in the parents to guide the children.

When the mother confided her anxiety to me, I suggested that we find other work for Carl; but he refused to leave his place. I tried repeatedly to see him, but always failed. I wrote and asked him to call, but he did not come. I urged that he be treated differently, since harshness had failed to check his course. By it they had succeeded only in driving him away from home and them.

After I had used many words and much time, the mother at last admitted that it might be worth the trial. All his life she had driven and scolded him, and she seemed not to know how to approach him in any other way. She felt a certain timidity, perfectly natural where the mother has never had a confidential relationship with her children. But she told me one day, in a tone indicating real achievement, that she had been withholding the customary scoldings; and at my next call I saw at once there had been a victory. Wiping the

tears from her face with one corner of her soiled apron, she told me of a serious talk with Carl which resulted in touching him. He had cried as he made promises of better behavior, and had agreed to take another place. Work was soon found for him, and during the two years since his conduct has been satisfactory.

Matilda, the eldest girl, was a sad-faced, womanly little thing when I first saw her, looking after the younger ones with seemingly as much care as her mother. When she was nine years old, she went every morning (no matter what the weather or what the state of her clothing) to a restaurant a mile and a half away for the stale bread which was always saved for her. When she was ten, I induced the mother to release her on a two weeks' country outing. This trip meant so much to them all that the following summer she was allowed to go again, although at great sacrifice to her mother, since she was baby-tender. Among the advantages of these trips was the knowledge of housekeeping gained. In time the question of work for her came up. There was the usual talk of the shop and store, but after a little persuasion she went into a home to assist in general housework. She was faithful and industrious and quick to learn. Before many months her wages were increased. I soon found the work too hard, and urged a change. The right place was found and the change was made, and for two years and a half Matilda has been happy and useful and safe in a home where she is appreciated.

The enlarging of the house was an event. In urging them to undertake it, I emphasized the importance of the boys having a room for themselves, that Carl could be interested in the building, and would then have a motive for saving his money. They finally commenced; and the father, Carl, and Matilda met the bills. Often they became discouraged and feared the undertaking had been a mistake, but sympathy induced perseverance; and, at last, the house was finished. To be sure, it had taken months. All had helped in the building, and all had shared the privations necessary to buy the lumber. Now all were abundantly repaid in the possession of a home. We all rejoiced together. I had watched the building with varying emotions. When for weeks it would be delayed for lack of material, I feared for the result; but again the work went forward, and I was happy. The project was mine, too. I saw in it the moral significance for the children. The mother keeps the larger house clean and homelike, for she no longer goes out to work.

The second boy began selling papers when nine years old, and has almost wholly escaped the corrupting influences that are ever about a newsboy.

Edward, the next younger, has not been so fortunate. He naturally abhors a school-room, and has much pent-up energy which must find a vent. He was led into wrong. I decided that active measures must be taken, and consulted the probation officer, who called at the house and became acquainted with Edward. This acquaintance had a restraining influence for a time, but at length it was

necessary for him to have a police court experience. Then there were consultations as to whether the wisest course would be to place him in a state institution or to give another trial at home. He was finally handed over to the care of the probation officer, who allowed him to remain at home; and we exerted ourselves to make doing right attractive to him. The end, of course, is not yet; but for the past few months Edward has kept fairly well his promises to be good, and we are hopeful.

One effect of the changed conditions in the home is the brighter view of life given to the two younger children, as is shown by their happy, joyous, light-hearted manner.

For four years the family have been wholly self-supporting. It has been a privilege to share their joys and sorrows during this period of development, and the benefit has been mutual.

Miss Z. D. Smith.— I am sure you all join with me in thanking the visitors who have come to us — some of them from a long distance — to tell us these experiences, and make us feel the spirit of their relation with the poor families they have made their friends.

And now I want to add a few words. You are all tired of hearing about Boston at this Conference. So am I. I do not know how many times I have been asked here if people in Boston, where we have eight hundred friendly visitors, are not different from people elsewhere; or told that they must be so. I think this meeting has shown that there are good visitors in many different cities of this country.

There is a misconception about friendly visitors. People try them, and they fail; and then it is said that volunteer visitors are "no good." That is because it is assumed that good visitors are born good visitors. No doubt most of those who have spoken to-day were born good visitors; but some of them have acknowledged their indebtedness to others, and certainly most of the good visitors in any group are *made*.

It is by no accident, either in the character of the people or in anything else, that Boston has eight hundred friendly visitors. It has meant twenty years of patient, hard work. The founders of the Associated Charities of Boston — and, as I was not one of them, I can speak freely — cared to know the poor and to help the poor. They also cared to interest others to know and help the poor. They cared enough to give a great deal of close thought and patient effort, and to watch their work as they went along to make sure that what was more immediately important — working over emergencies, getting clothing, getting work,— did not stand in the way of any personal relation that had been formed. At one of the early meetings, before I was connected with the society, I heard a gentleman from Philadelphia urge that the secret of success was to let nothing interfere with this personal relation. The leaders of our Boston society heeded this warning.

They knew that the volunteers in Boston, who had handled relief, had thereby had their minds turned altogether toward relief and been prevented from getting into the closer personal relation which would help the families in other ways. So they arranged that the visitors should give no relief; and, at first, visitors were required to sign a paper, pledging themselves to give none, but instead to consult with the agent and committee as to how best relief might be procured.

Then they found that, if the agent, the person most easily consulted, controlled the relief, it again interfered with the personal relation, or, at least, prevented the agent from fostering it. He was put on the defensive to keep the fund in his hands from being ill-used instead of joining forces with the visitor to consider the matter on all sides, and to arrange not only for securing relief, but for carrying out other plans.

Again, when we tried employing assistant agents, we found the volunteers would say that the workers who were giving all of their time to this service could do it better. They were inclined to drop their duties on two persons already hard worked and to lose their sense of responsibility. We found that the appointment of assistant agents really interfered between the visitor and the poor family with whom the relation had been begun. So we said, "We will have no assistant agents," and instead relieved overworked agents by making more and smaller districts.

On our present plan the most important aspect of the help each element of our force gives is this: the agent investigates and plans and attends to emergencies, and is the person who can be found any and every day for consultation; the committee brings a reserve of judgment and resource greater than can be at the command of any one person, however experienced and skilful; while the visitor gradually gains personal knowledge of tastes, ambitions, and family resources, and gradually, also, personal influence, such as has moulded our own lives. Many families get only the help of the agent and committee, some get only the help of the agent; but in the long run we have learned that we obtain best results where we have the help of all three,— agent, committee, and friendly visitor.

This meeting has been a place for telling secrets, and here is one: At the beginning, every new visitor is a care and a burden to the agent and committee. Friendly visitors are not sought in order to lighten our work. We are not wishing to get rid of burdens by shifting them upon new shoulders. Friendly visitors are wanted because in the end their service makes for the good of the poor people, for the good of the whole community.

I well remember the look of surprise, dismay, almost of horror, on Miss ——'s face when, having been for several years a friendly visitor, then a director, and presiding over a meeting of agents where the relation of the agent to the visitor was being considered, it dawned upon her that, when she was first a visitor, she must have

been a care and a burden. Of course, we do not go about telling visitors this; but we do offer to help them, and a large proportion become good visitors, even excellent visitors, rendering a valuable service which no paid worker can replace. When they have gained experience, we ask them, in their turn, to be helpful to new visitors.

It is no kindness to an overworked agent to send her a number of new and untrained visitors. You are adding to her burdens, not decreasing them. If you would help her, send her a volunteer who has been trained. The enlistment of visitors adds to the agent's duties. If friendly visiting is added to the work of any society, it will require more agents, and that means more money; and we all know it is hard to get money. But money comes more easily when you have many friendly visitors, because each is unconsciously a missionary. He tells his friends this or that little point about the work, and gradually creates public opinion in its favor.

The Committee for the Day was begun in Boston, because the more experienced visitors wished opportunity to see the new visitors as they came into the office; and the weekly conference exists largely for the purpose of helping these new visitors.

Visitors do not spring up out of the ground ready to hand. As between districts in Boston, we are familiar with just such comments as we have heard here as between cities. Our districts are not equally successful, and some of those which have ample opportunities for getting visitors have not known how to use and educate the young people who were brought to their doors. The local conditions differ, but the chief difference between a district which has a corps of visitors which grows and strengthens and one where volunteer service stands still or grows weak is in the amount of pains taken by the committee and agent to secure and gradually educate the new volunteers.

In reward for all this painstaking a New York expert writes, after visiting Boston, that more persons there take an intelligent interest in the problems of the poor than in any other city he knows.

The society as a whole, as well as the district committees, takes pains as to volunteers. Once or twice in a winter the agents' meeting concerns itself with the question of visitors. Recently each agent sent me in advance a copy of a letter written in the course of the current work to a visitor known for some time. These were presented without indicating the district, and criticised by the other agents as to what had better be omitted, what inserted, and in general as to the spirit which should characterize the relation of the agent to the visitor. Another group of letters, used in the same way, were addressed to persons not known to the agent, but who had been suggested for visitors, and gave briefly some points about families they might be interested to visit. Here the main point was to tell neither too much nor too little, but just the things which would bring the visitor after seeing the family to the conference or to the office to talk the matter over.

From time to time we also hold a joint meeting of the executive committees of the sixteen conferences,— meetings to which the visitors are not invited, but where their enlistment and education are discussed. The committees are made up chiefly of the more experienced visitors.

Each year also we have general meetings of visitors where half a dozen tell their experiences, just as has been done here to-day.

All these meetings are absolutely of no value whatever, speeches are useless, large audiences mean nothing, unless they stimulate to action, to better service, as Rev. Dr. Pullman said of this Conference to the people of Washington.

In order to make friendly visiting succeed, the committees and agents must care to really help the visitor,— not merely to give what the visitor asks, but, with tact and patience, what he needs,— and go at it simply and informally. You see I am saying much the same thing about helping visitors as we say to visitors who would help poor families, for visitors are just as human as the poor people. The agent and committee must learn patiently to know and understand the new visitor. It helps now and then to have a good social time with him. Thought must be given to his problems, and both direct and indirect means used to help him to help himself in working them out with the poor family. Each in our turn we have needed such help from our fellow-visitors, and each in our turn let us try to give it to others.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Tuesday morning, May 14.

The eighth general session was called to order at 9.30 A.M. by the President. The report of the Auditing Committee was made, as follows: —

The undersigned committee, appointed to audit the accounts of the Secretary and Treasurer of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, have carefully examined and compared the said accounts from May 18, 1900, to May 6, 1901, inclusive, and have found them correct.

Balance May 18, 1900	$882.08
Receipts during the year ending May 6, 1901	2,581.78
Total receipts	$3,463.86
Expended during the same period	3,110.68
Balance May 6, 1901	$353.18

All of which is respectfully submitted.

JAMES F. JACKSON,
J. P. BYERS,
Committee.

The subject for the morning was the Care of the Feeble-minded and Epileptics, chairman, William A. Polglase, M.D., superintendent of the Michigan Home for the Feeble-minded and Epileptics, who read a paper entitled "The Evolution of the Care of the Feeble-minded and Epileptic in the Past Century" (page 186).

A paper on "The Classification of the Mentally Deficient" was read by Miss Margaret Bancroft, superintendent of the Training School for Feeble-minded, Haddonfield, N.J. (page 191).

A paper by Dr. A. C. Rogers, superintendent of the Minnesota School for the Feeble-minded, Faribault, "Recent Attempts at Restrictive Marriage Legislation," was read, in his absence, by Mr. A. R. T. Wiley, of Faribault, Minn. (page 200).

DISCUSSION ON CARE OF FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTIC.

W. P. Spratling, M.D.— I believe that a representative body of this kind could not better spend its time than in discussing this question. How can it be done? Certainly not along one line,— not alone by restricting marriage; not by education. It must be done along many lines. We must come to recognize feeble-mindedness, idiocy, imbecility, and insanity as largely communicable conditions or diseases, just as the ordinary physician recognizes small-pox, diphtheria, etc., as communicable. When we recognize that, and take effective measures for preventing them, then of course we shall be able to do something. For one thing, then, let us try to prohibit the intermarriage of these people. Let uniform laws be passed in the different states, for it is of little use to pass such laws unless all the states do so.

The next point is education. I believe all living matter is capable of being taught. I do not care how low is the mental condition,— idiots, feeble-minded, epileptics,— they are capable of some education. And, after we have exhausted our efforts in shutting off the increase, then the state should put them under perpetual care, and keep them at the highest point of training or education of which they are capable. I was interested yesterday in reading a despatch from abroad where congenital blindness was actually treated successfully in Germany. The boy was put in a room where a single ray of light was thrown in, and he was taught to look at that ray as it fell in different places. And from that he went on and on, from one step to another, until, it was said, this congenitally blind boy could actually read. We do not know anything about what the brain is really capable of doing yet. We have much to learn of its working.

As to classification. If science has fought for anything, it is for classification. We need that to do everything else. I would not

put idiots and insane with epileptics. I would not put idiots with the feeble-minded. I would classify them all to the highest point, and would give individual study to each case. I would not have a hybrid institution.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Superintendent of the Indiana School for Feeble-minded.—When we come together annually, one thing we always do is to report progress. I know the Conference will congratulate the state of Indiana when I say that the last legislature passed a bill, that will soon be a law by the governor's proclamation, allowing us to receive for permanent custodial care all female imbeciles up to the age of forty-five. Before this the limit of age has been under sixteen at the time of application. We think that is a great step forward. If we are ever to stop the coming into existence of new generations of feeble-minded people for the tax-payers to support, this must be one of the ways to do it.

With reference to classification, Miss Bancroft has given us what is probably a true and scientific system. For our work in the institution our classification is not so scientific, but is practical and useful for working purposes. Omitting the epileptics, who do not belong with us and I hope will soon be taken from us altogether, we have five classifications. We first divide between idiots and imbeciles. We call an idiot one that has no power of speech. We divide the imbeciles into three grades, high, middle, and low; and the idiots into high grade and low grade. This is only for practical purposes, for talking about them among ourselves, not outside; but the same classification has been adopted by the Board of State Charities. I agree with Miss Bancroft that in a small, private institution it is possible to do things that cannot be done in a large, public institution; but I maintain that the effect of the children on each other is as great as the effect of the teachers and attendants upon the children, perhaps greater. In a large institution we can do what no private institution can do: we can give the feeble-minded child associates of its own grade, so gaining an effect upon the children that is most valuable. You know a strong-minded child brought up by itself is a little recluse, and surrounded by teachers, without playmates, and with only those about him who do not sympathize with child-life, becomes totally unfitted for active life. It is so with a feeble-minded child. He should have from the beginning a chance for attrition, for play with other children. The effect is something which can be secured in no other way. You see at once that by a practical classification in a large institution you can secure this, if you have an institution with rooms for the grown boys, for the grown girls, for the kindergarten, even if we have not all the beautiful things that can be done for a limited number. So I believe that a large state institution is the best place for the feeble-minded or idiotic child.

I do not think that, to prevent the propagation of this class, it is

necessary to kill them off or to resort to the knife; but, if it is necessary, it should be done. It might sometimes be necessary to hang a murderer, though I don't believe it; but other ways may be adopted. For the imbeciles there is the method of segregation. I think all who are really defective should be segregated. They should be under such conditions that many of them shall not cost the tax-payer anything. They do not know how to organize their own work: the state must do it for them, and say to them, "We will take care of you: you shall be happy and well cared for and clean and useful; but you shall labor and earn your bread in the sweat of your face according to the divine command." That is what ought to be done with the whole class of degenerates, just so far as it is possible to do it. But all of them, whether able for productive labor or wholly helpless, or of any grade between these extremes, ought to be permanent wards of the state so long as they shall live.

Miss BANCROFT.— I believe that the children should have companionship. We have a primary and intermediate and an advanced division, and they all have companionship. The general complaint about schools and universities is that they are so large that the children lose their individuality. If a normal child loses its individuality in a crowd, the deficient child will do the same.

Dr. J. M. MURDOCH, Pennsylvania.— Pennsylvania appreciates the importance of segregating the feeble-minded, and has now about 2,000 in its two state institutions. While we adopt generally a classification such as has been spoken of by Mr. Johnson, we find that we have as many classes or grades as we have different departments in which to care for them. We have 16 cottages, and so we have 16 grades. When a child comes into the institution, he goes to the admission cottage. There he is studied, and special attention is given to him by a particular teacher, by a physician, and by the superintendent. In the course of a few weeks, we say that this boy or girl is a "D" or "E" child. Our cottages are lettered on the girls' side, and numbered on the boys'. No matter how many different cottages you might have, you could divide the children to better advantage, the more you had. We classify them in groups of from 30 to 50. Although Pennsylvania is caring for 2,000, the present legislature has under consideration a bill making provision for a still greater number, believing that it gets no better return for money expended on the business side than in providing for the feeble-minded and segregating them, and preventing in this matter the procreation of their kind.

Mrs. MARY J. RUFFIN, Manager West Virginia Asylum for the Incurables.— West Virginia, though a young and small state, has the distinction of being the first to establish a state institution for incurable children. During my service as president of the Charleston Home for Destitute Women and Children, I came into contact with many incurable cases which we had not the means to help. One was

the case of a little girl with spinal meningitis, lying on the floor in the kitchen. The first steps toward establishing this institution were taken in 1890. It was some years before the project was carried through. One incurable case appealing to us was a man who had been thirty-six years in the poorhouse, where he had been since he was four years old. We have an incurable chaplain who has never moved for seven years. These are the cases that we are caring for in the West Virginia Home for the Incurables.

Adjourned at 11.30 A.M.

Section Meetings, 11.30 *to* 1.— Destitute and Neglected Children, "State Supervision"; Juvenile Reformatories; The Insane, "Dietaries."

NINTH SESSION.

Tuesday night, May 14.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 8 P.M. The subject for the evening was Reformatories and Industrial Schools. Mr. C. D. Hillis, of the Boys' Industrial School in Ohio, presided during the presentation of the report and discussion. A paper by Mr. Edwin P. Wentworth, superintendent State Reform School, Maine, was read, in his absence, by Mr. L. D. Drake, of Missouri (page 245).

A paper on "Girls' Reformatories and their Inherent Characteristics" was read by Mr. William G. Fairbank, superintendent State Industrial School for Girls, Connecticut (page 254).

A short discussion followed.

C. N. HANISON, Superintendent Newark City Home, Verona, N.J. In the professions the requirement of special training, as a means of preparation, is everywhere recognized. We have schools of medicine, theology, and law. Graduates from these institutions have the distinction of being classed as professional. They are presumed to be masters of the sciences which are most closely related to their specialties and to be expert in the arts whereby these sciences are applied in ministration, whether in the sick-room, in the pulpit, or in counsel or in pleading before the courts. Teaching is both a science and an art; and, while "the true teacher is born, not made," it still follows that the true teacher is not only born, but "born again" through a special course in studying methods of instruction. Pedagogy is indeed a science. The normal school is a

professional school, and its graduates should rank as professional teachers.

The normal schools in America have effected remarkable results, as evidenced in the excellence of the public schools, wherein the normal graduates have given their services. The comparison of the modern school methods with those practised during the years of the past century, antedating the establishment of normal schools, conclusively proves the value of the special study of teaching as a science and an art. The normal schools of the land are therefore everywhere approved; and their agency in the remarkable uplift of popular culture, which the past forty years has witnessed, is everywhere acknowledged.

How may a corps of able superintendents, teachers, and caretakers be secured? A period of training and study is a prerequisite. That must be conceded. A novice, intrusted with the peculiar type of boys and girls who find their way to the state homes or reform schools, has a long season of empirical practice before him, before he acquires the knowledge and skill which successful instruction, care-taking, and leadership imperatively demand.

The season of study, with opportunity for observation, should precede the assumption of the duties which the reform school officer has to assume. A school, wherein he may acquaint himself with all of the most approved and advanced methods of teaching and of institutional and paternal government, it therefore follows, is indispensable to him. For, with such acquirement, he enters upon his work with the intelligence and devotion which, if he be a "born teacher," assures the successful discharge of his duties from the very outset of his career. He gains the greater skill in all departments of his work, and is, at every point of time, as the years go on, stronger in every essential of effective masterfulness than he could have been, had he assumed his duties without preparation. In the latter case, experimentation would be his means of fitting himself for his profession. Would experiment be permissible in the pulpit? Would it not be condemned in medicine? The quack is punishable by fine and imprisonment. Would he be countenanced in the practice of law? The pettifogger is recognized no longer either before courts or as a counsellor.

It is a simple truism that the duties of a reformatory officer, no matter what the nature of his office, are most delicate and most desperate, too. Knowing how to teach is one needed accomplishment only. How to prepare food, how to practise a wise economy in the use of material, how to safeguard the very lives of children, how to develop the bodily functions and insure their normality, how to cultivate manners, morals, and the principles of piety,— knowledge of these and all cognate interests is paramount as acquisition and accomplishment. These should be subject-matters of instruction and thought before the assumption of active duty in any department

of institutional work. The training school is assuredly a necessity, and this necessity discovers itself more and more clearly upon considerate reflection.

The report of the Committee on Organization was made by Mr. C. L. Stonaker, and was adopted unanimously. For names of those elected see page ix.

TENTH SESSION.

Wednesday morning, May 15.

The tenth general session was called to order by the President at 9.30 A.M. The Reports from States were presented by Rev. Hastings H. Hart, chairman (page 25).

The Committee on Resolutions reported through Mr. Lucius C. Storrs, as follows: —

Resolved, That the President of the Conference be directed to appoint a special committee of three to consider and, if deemed by them wise, to take steps to secure the establishment of some agency under the national government for the purpose of collecting, publishing, and distributing statistics and information bearing on charities and corrections. Such committee, if found desirable, may increase its number to five members.

Mr. Devine objected to the resolution, and offered as a substitute a motion that a committee of five should be appointed to secure the establishment of such a bureau under federal control.

Mr. F. H. Wines, assistant director of the census, said that he had been asked by the director of the census to say that he has been much interested in the newspaper reports of the discussion as to the necessity for the collection of information on the topics in which the Conference is particularly interested, and that he desires to aid in any way in his power. He will second and carry out any practical scheme that the Conference may advocate in this particular direction. If the Conference will appoint a committee of five strong men familiar with the subject, who can formulate the character of the inquiries to be made, he can then go before Congress with such information that an amendment to the census act can probably be carried at the next session, which will secure what is wanted. Mr. Wines added that he thought seed planted in the Census Office in this way would be more likely to grow into a bureau such as had

been planned than if an attempt were made to get it directly through Congress.

A little further discussion followed in which Messrs. Johnson, Hart, Devine, Hill, Fox, Storrs, Stonaker, Mornay Williams, and S. J. Barrows took part.

On motion of Mr. Hart the resolution was laid on the table.

The following resolution was then offered by Mr. S. J. Barrows as a substitute: —

Whereas the director of the Census has expressed willingness to co-operate with the National Conference of Charities and Correction in securing such information as it may desire for scientific and philanthropic purposes,—

Resolved, That this offer be accepted, and that a committee of five be appointed by the chair to co-operate with the director of the Census in formulating and securing the adoption of an amendment to the census law to carry out the purposes of the Conference in this respect.

The resolution was unanimously adopted.

A report on the International Prison Congress, held last summer in Brussels, Belgium, and which he attended as a delegate from the National Conference of Charities and Correction, was read by Mr. Michel Heymann. The following is an epitome: —

INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

The result of the deliberations of the Congress may be briefly summarized. The subject of the reparation due to the victim of crime was considered at length, and the mild and ineffective conclusion reached that reforms should be effected in civil procedure so as to aid the victim in recovering damages from the delinquent. The subject of the extradition of criminals led into the region of international law. The indeterminate sentence was the subject of much discussion, but some of its most prominent advocates in Europe were not present at the Congress. It failed to approve it as a punitive measure, thinking it could be replaced with advantage by conditional liberation with progressive punishments for recidivists. It would admit the indeterminate sentence in the case of irresponsible delinquents attacked with mental disease.

It was recommended that all criminal codes should provide for the punishment of blackmail.

The sanitary and medical service of prisons was considered in detail, the duties of prison physicians pointed out, and the desirability of consulting them in all matters concerning the building of the institution and the sanitary aspects of food, clothing, work, punishment, etc. The congress, while taking into serious consideration

the reformatory system of the United States, thinks that the results to date, so far as exhibited, do not justify the adoption of the system in Europe. The government of the United States was asked to submit all information on the subject. Concerning the cellular system which has been generally adopted in Belgium, a favorable report was adopted, stating that it has met the expectations formed of it, and that it is not more detrimental to health than other systems. Maintaining that prisons should be as punitive as possible from the beginning, it was not deemed necessary to submit recidivists to a more severe régime.

The emigration of minors to foreign countries in colonies was not recommended. The subject of alcohol in its relation to crime occupied large space in preliminary reports. The congress recommended special institutions for the medical treatment of prisoners addicted to drink. Societies for discharged convicts were encouraged to work in harmony with labor bureaus, the organization of which should be left to local circumstances.

The functions of child-saving societies and their intervention in the case of minors accused of penal offences was recognized. Professional education and manual training in reform schools were recommended, and a combination of the placing-out system with the system of placing out in families was regarded as possible and desirable.

The President read a letter from Mr. Charlton T. Lewis, regretting that he was compelled to be absent from the Conference. He had sent his paper to the Secretary. The President then called Mr. Philip C. Garrett to the chair. Mr. Lewis's paper, entitled "How the State ought to deal with Criminals," was read by Mr. F. H. Wines (page 147.)

DISCUSSION ON THE CRIMINAL.

General BRINKERHOFF.— I am very sorry that Mr. Lewis could not have been here. He is one of the foremost men in America as a penologist, and has given many years of thought and attention to the subject. The principles that he has presented in this report I want you to take home and study. Those principles are thoroughly indorsed by the National Prison Congress. I say this with knowledge, because I have been connected with the Prison Congress for many years,— seventeen at least. I have attended their annual meetings, and every session of the meetings, so that I can say to you that this paper presents the foremost conclusions of the Prison Congress upon the prison question. There are some who have hesitated about adopting the indeterminate sentence for fear the administration of it will be impossible, but I think we are all willing to risk it. We shall educate competency in the course of

time, and the gain will be more than the loss. How are we going to get that? We must in some way get a clean service in our prisons. So long as we have political affiliations entering into prison work, we shall fail to have the administration what it should be. I do not know how we are to arrive at this except by creating public sentiment in favor of the reform. In other countries, especially in European countries, like Belgium, France, and Great Britain, we have good plain service. In Great Britain they have a permanent prison service. No one is fitted to be the governor of a prison there till he has served for years in a subordinate position. Politics does not have the slightest influence in it. Governments may come and governments may go, but the prison service goes on unchanged. We have a gentleman on our platform now, Colonel McHardy, who is at the head of the Prison Commission in Scotland; and he knows fully the truth of what I have just said. In France they have a prison school to which the wardens of all the various prisons are sent for a certain period every year for education in prison service. We may be able to do something of that kind in this country. If we should have a prison school in two or three of our most advanced prisons,— one in Pittsburg, one of the best administered in the country; one at Concord, Mass., which is the foremost reformatory in its administration,— if we could have at different places some opportunity for educating a prison service, we could make it practical. That is one thing, I think, we must try to do, to get a more advanced and better trained service.

Hon. T. E. Ellison.— There are two or three things in this report that I want to speak of. In the main, every person who attends the Prison Congress will agree with it. The protection of society is the important effect you want to look for, but the protection of society, so far as the punishment of the criminal is concerned, so far as deterrent influence is concerned, does not depend upon the character of the punishment or its extent so much as upon its certainty.

When we have convicted the criminal, when we have brought him under the law, what shall we then do? There should be an indeterminate sentence; and I believe more and more, as I study the subject, that it should be absolutely indeterminate, until the prison officials believe that the man can go out into the community and live an honest life. To learn whether he can be trusted to do that, he must be paroled. I do not think the period of oversight is long enough. The parole is the corner-stone. It keeps the prisoner under the control of the state during that time. I do not think the committee have laid stress enough upon the strong arm of the state and the power it ought to exercise and the ability it has to protect. I think Mrs. Booth comes nearer the correct idea,— that there should be a state agent whose duty it should be to go and find a place for the paroled man, go with him to the place, visit him frequently, give him moral support, and make him know that the eye of the state is right

upon him, and that the state is willing to sustain him in all his efforts to do right. You cannot imagine how much that would be to such men. I remember a young man who was given into my charge. While he was trying to recover himself, some slighting remarks were made of him in his hearing; and he came to me with tears in his eyes because he had been talked about in such a way, and asked, "Mr. Ellison, doesn't the state have the power to protect me and care for me when I am *out* as well as when I am in confinement?"

I do not believe that the great difficulty as to securing trained experts, that has been hinted at, exists. One of the greatest pleasures I ever had was in nominating for appointment and in helping to securo the appointment of a man as superintendent of our reformatory whe held political ideas radically different from mine. I say to you that, if you will put in a man with a good heart, a right spirit, and good common sense, and let him have charge of these men, he will carry out the ideas of this Conference, and apply to each individual man those influences that ought to be given. We have tried these principles and this kind of men in Indiana for fours years past, and we have done nothing that has brought about such a forward movement for the benefit of humanity as the adoption of the indeterminate sentence and parole law as now administered.

Mr. PHILIP C. GARRETT.— General Brinkerhoff has mentioned the presence of Colonel McHardy, of Scotland. I hope that we shall hear from him.

Colonel McHardy was invited to speak.

Lieutenant-Colonel A. B. MCHARDY, Chairman Prison Commission, Scotland.— *Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*— I think it will be quite improper for me to enter into any debate upon the report which has been read for several reasons. First, I have never seen the reformatory system at work. I have only come to study it, so that we in the old country may see what we can learn from the new. I have not as yet had an opportunity of visiting any of these reformatories, and the few days I have been in America have been taken up in admiring the grandeur of your country and the magnificence of the buildings in this city.

With the permission of your chairman, I would tell you a few facts about the prison system of Scotland. I have myself been employed in constructing and administering prisons since 1878, when the government assumed the charge of all the prisons in the kingdom. The conditions of Scotland are somewhat peculiar in regard to crime. We have about one hundred and sixty thousand people who are either arrested or cited before the court annually. It is a large number, but out of that number there is a mere fraction who have to be tried by a court of what the French would call second instance. Only about two thousand of these cases are indicted and tried before a sheriff and jury or before the High Court.

Of these persons, about 150 are charged with stabbing, 50 with murder or intent to murder, or culpable homicide, about 1,000 with house-breaking and 10,000 with theft. All of these figures are swamped by the 110,000 apprehensions for drunkenness and disorder. That, I am sorry to say for my country's sake, is a peculiar feature that it possesses in the criminal statistics of Europe. I remember being asked by Lombroso how it was that we were such a criminal country in Scotland; and I had to explain to him that we were really quite the reverse, but that a good many of us drank more than we ought to do.

I think you can form a very poor conception of the criminality of different countries unless you take into consideration the police. The different administrations of the police make a large and sensible effect on the criminal roll. In Scotland we have an army of 5,000 constables: in towns, 1 to every 700 citizens; in the country, 1 to every 1,200. Now the police, I imagine from the few facts I have already gathered here, have probably with us more information about criminals than they have with you. Throughout the whole of Scotland they have (provided by the Prison Commission) the photographs of every man who has been twice convicted on indictments. They have also a minute description of his personal appearance, the marks on his body, a history of his individual career, a summary of his crimes, and in some cases they have prints of the impressions of his finger-tips. These are sent throughout the whole of Scotland, so that the police are pretty fairly well informed, if they come across a stranger, who he may be. At least, they can make certain that he is a stranger.

Referring to the fact that drunkenness is the principal cause of prison population, it is rather interesting to notice that in our records we can see there is a yearly wave of crime. It goes down in the winter time, and rises to its maximum when life is at its fullest in September. The difference caused by temperature in the Scottish prison population is extraordinary. One year, I think in the winter of 1894–95, a very severe frost came on (we felt it to be very severe, though here, I presume, it would have been thought mild); and the prison population went down from 23,000 to 15,000 in about a fortnight. So that, whatever be the reason for our jails being so full, it is a matter of fact, when the trade and commerce of the country are good, our prisons are full. Probably, when men do not know how to spend their money wisely, they spend it unwisely.

Major Sylvester was invited to speak.

Major RICHARD SYLVESTER, Superintendent Metropolitan Police, Washington.—I have been a police officer in the District of Columbia for nearly nineteen years, and for the past three years superintendent of the department. As you are probably aware, we have in the United States an association of chiefs and superintendents of

police which meets annually for the purpose of accomplishing what good they can by the way of exchanging ideas, and by the utterance of things which may help their organization. These men have received little attention from your Conference either in your papers or your deliberations. I observe that much attention has been paid to the criminal after he gets into prison or is on parole; and I think that, if your Secretary would see that the chiefs of police who compose our organization could attend or see the printed reports of your proceedings, it would have a good effect.

The SECRETARY.— We always invite them, but they do not come.

Major SYLVESTER.— Well, I propose to put into practice much that I have learned through your deliberations. There will be investigations after the first of July into the character of prisoners taken by us who are charged with crimes, with a view to putting before the judges certain facts which will enable them to decide better whether the prisoner is deserving of the penitentiary or the hospital.

I believe that, if you will confer with our association, which meets the 28th of May in New York, it will have a wholesome effect in the treatment of those men who must fall into the hands of the police. We have inaugurated here under my supervision a house of detention, where, rather than send women and children to the station-house, we take them, give them baths and night-gowns, and make them feel at home until they go to court. Our courts and places of confinement are not what they should be, but we intend to work for their improvement.

Judge M. D. FOLLETT, Ohio.— This report makes the statement that there is a good time coming, when we shall have all this thing arranged. It is not yet arranged.

Men speak against detention in prison,— that mere arrest and detention are not punishment. What is it? It is punishment in most places in the world. But go further. Take the prisoner and treat him in the very best manner. When he is convicted, and is placed in a jail or penitentiary, what will you do with him? One of two things must be true: as long as he intends and shows by his conduct that he is to remain a criminal,— some of this report seeks to show that we have no criminals, but I take it for granted that we have,— what will you do with him? Keep him a few years or a short time? Or, because you cannot tell whether or not he will fulfil his duties as a citizen, will you keep him indefinitely?

The parole law of Ohio clearly lays down the principle that, when a man shows by his conduct in prison that he is a changed man, and will probably lead a proper life out of prison, then you may parole him, and not before. Right at this point is the trouble here in the United States. Last summer, while returning from the International Prison Congress at Brussels, I learned from one who knew the facts that the bill to establish the parole system of treating prisoners,

when before the legislature of Illinois, was carefully watched by criminals who had fled from Chicago to New Orleans, and who desired the adoption of the Parole Law and the Indefinite Sentence Law, and that, after the passage of such laws in Illinois, the same persons returned to Chicago.

The shrewd criminals have learned how to evade the just and intended object and result of these laws, and their true object and result are secured only by right and skilled officers effectively enforcing them. Without such right and effective *management*, these laws are a curse; but, with such right and enlightened management, they may continue to become rich blessings.

The good results of each administration, and the warnings from the failures, should be truly published. We need neither meteors nor shams; and, when a prisoner is required to aid in showing off a deception, his improvement has ceased.

Prison reform cannot attain to perfection until attending officers, police magistrates, and court judges know and comprehend and wisely and faithfully apply to proper subjects the principles and spirit that can change and purify character and human lives.

How great is the dearth of the best and desired officers, magistrates, and judges! And, when some worthy ones have come to us, an evil spirit seems to snatch them from us.

Mr. HUGH F. FOX.— I would like to ask the gentleman from Scotland whether there is a system of after-treatment of prisoners which is uniform throughout Great Britain?

Colonel MCHARDY.— We have in every place attached to the prison a quite independent body, the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society; and their representative is allowed to go into the prison and to see the prisoners previous to their discharge. We also send them lists of those who are to be discharged. They assist these prisoners; and, in order to give them more power, we send to them any gratuity which, under our system with regard to industry, we allow the prisoner to earn. If the gratuity amounts only to a few pence, we pay the prisoner on discharge; but, if it amounts to half a crown or more, we send it to the society, that they may have by that means more control over the discharged men. In regard to that I may say that some of these agents have told me that the visits to the prisoner inside the prison, before he is discharged, have not been so useful as we expected before the work began, because they find, what I think is almost proverbial with our common humanity, that, when we are in distress, we are one sort of person, and, when we are free, we are another.

As to the sentences imposed on prisoners, we have first what is called imprisonment, which may be from one day up to two years. Then there is a hiatus of a year, and anything beyond from three years upward is called penal servitude. The "imprisoned" man, at present, has to serve the whole of his sentence; but we have a bill

before Parliament which will allow him to get out, if well conducted, before the sentence expires, if it is a longish one. Under the penal servitude regulations a man is able to earn a remission of one-fourth of his time, and a woman one-third of her time. In Scotland the number of female convicts is very small. I think I could count them on one hand.

Mrs R. C. LINCOLN.— I want to say a few words in regard to the value of the central administration of prisons. I do not mean a national central power, but that there should be a central organization for each state. The large prisons in Massachusetts are directed by the state, but the smaller ones are managed by the counties. We had a bill for several years before the General Court, asking for state control of county prisons. It will be a step in the right direction if we can get that. The state makes the laws and imposes the penalty, and should have the custody of the criminal. I hoped that the gentleman from Scotland would speak about the system in Great Britain, where there is absolute central control, so that even the under officials are appointed by the central office. It is remarkable that this can be successfully carried out. I am not sure that it would be acceptable in this country, but it is interesting to hear how it has worked in England. I had the privilege of observing it there. It is with this central idea in mind that we are working in Massachusetts to secure a uniform standard for the prisons of the state. I do not believe that prisons will ever be successfully administered until each state has its own central and permanent power.

The following resolution, offered by Hon. S. J. Barrows, of the International Prison Commission, was presented, and referred to the Committee on Resolutions: —

Resolved, That this Conference expresses the earnest hope that the new prison of the United States, soon to be opened near Atlanta, will be organized on reformatory principles, and that its warden and officers will be appointed with reference to fitness and character only.

Adjourned at 11 A.M.

Section Meetings, 11 *to* 1. — "The Reform-school Officer," paper by Ira Otterson, page 277; Needy Families in their Homes, "Friendly Visiting," page 398.

LAST SESSION.

Wednesday night, May 15.

The closing session of the Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President.

Addresses were made by several gentlemen. The chairman first introduced General John Eaton as a delegate from Alaska.

ALASKA AND THE REINDEER.

BY GENERAL JOHN EATON.

I was much touched to receive from Governor Brady, of Alaska, the designation as a delegate from that vast country for which he is held responsible.

When in his struggle upwards he had finished his course at Yale, and his professional studies at the Seminary, and begun to outline the possibilities of the future, he came here to consult in regard to founding a colony for the benefit of those who might have the experience like himself in early life. He is alive to all the questions treated in your meetings. He has the hearty co-operation of Dr. W. T. Harris, Commissioner of the Bureau of Education, and of the special agent for education in the whole of Alaska, Dr. Sheldon Jackson; and, while these three men have this general responsibility, there will be no lack of effort for the good of the people of Alaska. Already the laws provide for the erection of a penitentiary; and the governor is studying, that no improvements in the building or methods may be lacking. The development of coal and gold and other minerals has excited great public interest and attracted large populations, raising all the questions usual in mining camps.

At first there was great difficulty in keeping the adoption of the Indian policy away from the natives of Alaska. No general laws were adopted by Congress for the country until Benjamin Harrison came here as senator. He could neither be corrupted nor his edge turned, and he secured the passage of a law making the country a district. Now Congress has adopted a code for the country, stimulated in their efforts by the governor, whose presence was not desired by the Secretary of the Interior, whose orders he is under. Two towns have already been organized. They had representatives here to secure their interests, and have obtained control of fees, which furnished them money for their schools. Schools throughout the territory have been provided for, by act of Congress, out of the moneys in the treasury. In the adoption of the code, no provision was made for those sections not organized into towns. However, after provision had been omitted from the general appropriations by

the last Congress, which would have left the country districts without schools, in the very last hours amendments were adopted by Congress providing that fees could be used for schools in regions outside of towns; and thus the Bureau of Education is able to continue its work.

Dr. Jackson, in traversing the country, found that natives, in adopting improved implements for fishing and hunting, did not understand their destructiveness, and wastefully killed off game and fish. He saw how in the north of Europe the people are trained in herding and using reindeer for food, clothing, and transportation, and suggested the same remedy for Alaska. The result is, lives have been saved, education has been modified, and natives have been trained in herding and raising deer, by their importation and multiplication, until they have some 4,000 distributed in different sections, with appropriations for further extension of the work. This is sometimes confused with the introduction of reindeer from the north of Europe, under the auspices of the War Department. By a mistake in feeding the deer thus brought into the country, for which Dr. Jackson was not responsible, a large number died; and those that survived, not being needed to save the lives of miners, were transferred and made useful, as far as possible, in the educational work. In the great influx of miners there has been danger that the interests of the natives would be overlooked, but for the governor, the Commissioner of Education and his agent, and those who sympathized with them among the officers and people of Alaska.

I might add personally that I have the greatest interest in the delightful conventions you have held here. They mean vast things for the future. I recall the beginnings. Indeed, I was so situated as a teacher in Ohio, by the action of their State School Convention, to gather the data from the jails which led to the sending of an expert commissioner to study juvenile reformatories in Germany, whose report may be said to have led to the establishment of the State Reform School in that state.

As Commissioner of Education, later, I furnished the public a list of the insane asylums, and sought to secure from their superintendents, a most excellent body of men, a facing about of their reports from efforts to cure to those to prevent insanity, for the benefit of parents and teachers. A portion of those officers were ready for the additional work, but others were not; and the effort had to be given up.

The Bureau of Education has a despatch office in London, of which the manager is Mr. B. F. Stevens, a nephew of Hon. Thaddeus Stevens. Among other things forwarded by his watchfulness were two volumes relating to charity. One was a report of the London Organization of Charities, and the other was a volume containing a list of charities in that city. When I found the subject developing in Buffalo, and Mr. Kellogg and others co-operated with

me in promoting the organization of charities in this city and elsewhere, and I saw the eminent Robert T. Paine taking up the work in Boston, I became confident that our country would have the benefit of this great movement in charities. The result has not disappointed me. I congratulate you on the encouragement received in the co-relation, co-operation, of charities and correction, in these large and enthusiastic national meetings. They mean much for the century.

The next address was given by a representative of the country of Mexico, Mr. José F. Godoy, which, for convenience of reference, is placed in the Reports from States, page 109.

The Chinese minister, Wu Ting Fang, was the next speaker.

THE GOLDEN RULE.

BY WU TING FANG, CHINESE MINISTER TO THE UNITED STATES.

I have noticed, as an interesting feature of this Conference, that a great many ladies participate in it, which is a very pleasant thing. It speaks well for the women of this country that they take part in all public questions as well as in domestic questions. There is no reason why they should not do so. In this free and independent country, where education is so excellent, the public schools so good, and where girls have perfect liberty and freedom to go to the schools, it is natural that, when they are educated, they should wish to take part in dealing with these subjects. They should not bury their knowledge and their education under a bushel, or in their own homes. It is natural that they should take part in all public questions.

The problems of charity and correction are deep subjects. I must confess that I have not studied them much, as they pertain to this country; but a new interest has been aroused in me concerning them, and, when I have time, I shall study them. When I see men and women from all parts of the nation gathered together to hold this annual Conference, I ask myself what it is that influences them to do it. I think the unselfish motive is to benefit others. I am told that you come at your own expense, that you come here because of humanity. Yes; but what is the root of that?

A gentleman came to me this morning and asked me to speak before this Conference; and, when I wanted him to excuse me, because I did not know anything about these subjects, he threw out a delicate hint that I could speak to you about the Golden Rule. I thank him for the suggestion; for, now that I think of it, it is the Golden Rule that has brought you here. It is because it is in accordance with the principles laid down by the Golden Rule that you do unto others as you would be done by. In my country we, too,

have a Golden Rule, though some people say it is in the negative form,— do not do unto others what you wish not done to yourself. If you do not do mischief to others, naturally what you do must be harmless to others. So I think, though it does not go so far as your Golden Rule, that, if everybody would live up to it, he would be a good citizen in any nation.

Confucius, our great philosopher and sage, was asked one day by one of his disciples, "Master, is there a word by which we can act and which we can apply to our daily conduct in life?" "Is there not such a word as 'reciprocity'?" he replied. Reciprocity is of the same substance as the Golden Rule. In other words, you have in that another expression for the Golden Rule. It is what, in modern usage, you call altruism. The Golden Rule is very useful, not only in this country, but in all countries; and, if we are going to act up to it, we shall do wonders in this world.

It is because of your love of others, your sympathy with other people, your sympathy with the cause of humanity, that you have got all these people together from the different sections of the country. When a nation has such people, so highly civilized, so well educated, so earnest and interested in such work, it shows that they are benevolent and good. Such a nation is bound to become strong and great. It is not by reason of physical strength, by reason of arms and munitions of war, that a nation should be called great. In my humble opinion, the nation that possesses the largest number of good and benevolent people, that nation is the greatest on the face of the earth.

One day a man was making a bet with another, and he said, "Heads, I win: tails, you lose." That was his idea of the Golden Rule. A man was speaking to another, and he said: "You are an advocate of the Golden Rule. Now I have a silver spoon. Will you not, then, give me your golden spoon for my silver one?" That is the way he looked at the Golden Rule. That is not the way we should look at it. We ought to be more fair and just. I tell you, if the people of every nation would follow the example of that rule, the poor would be all provided for; and, if the criminals were corrected, educated, and reformed, all the people on the face of the earth would be good citizens and good members of the communities in which they live. That would be the consequence of all living up to the Golden Rule. There would be no dependants, no quarrelling, no war, no wrong, but perpetual peace, with peoples living together in brotherhood.

Pray continue in your good work, and may your example be followed by other people.

Dr. F. H. WINES.— On behalf of the Conference of Charities and Correction, I should like to say to Minister Wu that the members of this Conference believe in the Golden Rule; and, if the matter

were left to them to decide, the Golden Rule would be applied to the nation he represents. In proof of our feeling toward him, I propose that this Conference shall do what it has never done before. Let us make him an honorary member of the Conference of Charities and Correction for life. I so move.

The motion was seconded by Mr. W. P. Letchworth, and was unanimously adopted by a rising vote, with hearty applause.

On motion of Mr. Johnson, it was voted that the Secretary should send to Minister Wu as complete a file of the Proceedings of the Conference of Charities and Correction as were available.

The following committee was announced as the Committee on Statistics: Messrs. Jeffrey R. Brackett, R. Brinkerhoff, Robert Treat Paine, William R. Stewart, and Hugh F. Fox.

Mr. H. H. Hart moved, and put the motion, that Mr. John M. Glenn be added to the committee. Voted.

The Committee on Resolutions reported the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted by a rising vote: —

Resolved, That the thanks of the Conference be extended to the many institutions and individuals by whose courtesies its session has been made most helpful and pleasant. Especially is it indebted to the officers of the Columbian University and the Foundry Methodist Episcopal Church, who have kindly given the use of their buildings for the meetings; to Epiphany Church, where the Conference Sermon was preached; and to the public press, which has given the Conference most excellent service in its reports of the proceedings.

Mr. J. J. Edson, of Washington, was invited to speak.

Mr. JOHN JOY EDSON.— I had supposed that my only duty in connection with the programme to-night was to conduct to this meeting our distinguished guest, Minister Wu. The American people have formed a high regard for him. He is always gracious in responding to invitations to meet with any assembly of people engaged in any good work, religious or civil. I have often heard him speak, and have always learned something from what he has to say. I wish to thank him personally, and on behalf of the citizens of Washington, for his many courtesies in this direction.

The people of Washington extended an invitation through their commissioners to this Conference, and were very glad when it was accepted. I think that no city in this country has been so directly benefited in its work as the city of Washington by the visit of the Conference when it was here before. In one year we collected in money and provisions about $50,000 for charity. I was a mem-

ber of the Committee on Subscriptions that secured this money and food. One day I thought I would visit the quarters of the committee distributing money, provision, fuel, and clothing; and I learned something that set me to thinking. I saw things distributed without any regard to the worthiness of the people who applied for help. There was no inquiry as to name or address. I asked a man who was distributing them how he knew that the people needed the things, but he gave me no satisfactory reply. Finally, I saw two ladies come in. The goods were piled to the ceiling. These ladies wanted and secured some cloaks. Many of the people in the city had contributed clothing, little injured, but out of style. I asked the man in charge who those ladies were. He did not know. I asked him to get their names. He declined, so I inquired their names. They hesitated about giving them; but, finally, I got name and address. I had a man visit them at their house, and found they were sisters. Their parents were dead. The father had left them the house in which they lived, a two-story, comfortable house, and had also left them an annuity of about $250 each. Now that was a single case that I happened to drop upon. It discouraged me so that I had very little heart for that kind of work. I pursued the inquiry, and found many cases of like character. Finally, my friend Mr. Woodward, came into my office one day,— nine times out of ten he comes for some good work,— and told me that he wanted me to be treasurer of the Associated Charities, and said that he was to be president. I asked how he could afford to be president of such a society. He said he had been looking into the subject of charity problems, and how they were worked out in other cities; and he made up his mind that he was going to work with the Associated Charities of Washington. So I went in with him; and I may say that I have never been engaged in any public work for the welfare of my fellow-men that has been so gratifying to me, and in which I have seen such wonderful progress and such good results, as in the work of the Associated Charities of Washington. We have been fortunate in having a most excellent secretary,— so excellent that he has been appointed secretary to the new Board of Charities.

There is one other matter in reference to the Associated Charities which will indicate the success we have attained in Washington. I have told of gathering and dispensing $50,000 in one year. Last year we dispensed $15,000 altogether, $7,000 for administration and $8,000 only for charity; and every demand was supplied.

The citizens of Washington have taken great pleasure in welcoming the Conference here. We have been greatly interested in what we have heard; and we hope that your visit has been pleasant and beneficial, and that you will return in safety to your homes with the brightest recollections.

Mr. S. W. Woodward, of Washington, was invited to speak.

Mr. S. W. Woodward. — I think I may say for the citizens of Washington that it is a great pleasure and a great privilege to have entertained the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Through our friends in Congress and our able Board of Commissioners, we are striving to make this the most beautiful city in the country for those who have means and leisure; but we are not willing to be behind other great cities in the care which we take of those who are poorer and more unfortunate than ourselves. So we welcome you to Washington because we believe our city will be greatly benefited by your presence and by the very helpful and generous publicity which our press has given to your proceedings and the greater interest, consequently, which our citizens will take in the welfare of those less efficient than themselves and for whom the public must, in a large sense, provide. For the fine weather, which has added to your enjoyment, we take no credit. But, if you have had a good time and been fairly well entertained, we are a thousand times repaid, and shall be glad to see you again in 1910.

The chair called on Mr. Bernard T. Janney, Chairman of the Local Committee of Washington for a speech.

Mr. Janney in a few words thanked the Conference for coming to Washington, and said that he should be more than satisfied in knowing that the members had had a good time.

Mr. Robert Treat Paine, Boston. — The members of our Conference are aware that the term of service of our General Secretary, Mr. Hart, has drawn to a close. I should therefore like to offer this resolution: —

Resolved, That this Conference wishes to place on record its hearty appreciation of the long and valued and devoted services of our General Secretary, Mr. Hastings H. Hart. After serving many years as one of the secretaries of our organization, and in 1893 as its President, Mr. Hart was elected our first General Secretary in 1894; and his services for these past seven years have been of great value and deserve our hearty recognition.

In offering this resolution, I wish to say that it has been my pleasure and privilege to have the acquaintance of Mr. Hart for a good many years; and I know how faithfully and beautifully he has served the Conference. In 1895, when I had the honor of being the President, he was the General Secretary, and from then to this day he has served the Conference all over the country, in the West, on the Pacific Coast, in the East; and everywhere he has carried out the spirit of the Golden Rule. His services have been more largely in the West than in the East, though in saying that I — who am from the East — am reminded of the story of the Western minister who in war times was invoking the Almighty to help our armies, after Grant's victory at Fort Donelson: "Lord, help our armies in the field. If

the men in the East had done as well as the men of the West, we should not be obliged to call upon thee for help." Mr. Hart has gone up and down the land like a missionary of good work, establishing conferences and local organizations of this kind in different states; and I think we all owe him the heartiest gratitude.

Mr. F. H. WINES.— I wish to second that resolution. I helped to educate Mr. Hart in his duties as secretary of the Minnesota State Board, and claim him as one of my boys. I am proud of him.

I am a charter member of the Conference. I had the honor to organize the first general meeting, in Chicago, not under the auspices of the American Social Science Association. I have therefore seen the growth of this movement from the beginning. At its inception the Conference was a meeting of members and officers of state boards for the discussion of questions relating to legislation and to the organization and management of state charitable and correctional institutions. The other persons who attended it were chiefly trustees and superintendents of state institutions. Gradually, its outlook and scope have enlarged, first by the inclusion of private charities, and later of the associated charities or charity organization societies, so that it has become a recognized power in the land. It influences thought in every direction. It influences legislation, religious life, municipal life, politics, education, economics, indeed almost every other leading interest that can be named. Within the next twenty-five years it will have made a deep and lasting mark upon the life of the new century. For its success, for its standing, for its membership, for its wise guidance in the past and bright prospect of increasing usefulness in the future, it is very largely indebted to its unselfish, capable, and efficient Secretary, Mr. Hart. It is a pleasure to me to acknowledge and to second the motion to put on record our obligation to him as a Conference and as representatives of the general and individual charitable and correctional enterprises of the United States.

THE PRESIDENT.— I have been very closely connected with Mr. Hart in conference work, and I have never found one more pleasant to work with or any one who gave himself up more wholly to his work. He gave himself up to it absolutely, and that is the reason he did it so effectively. I congratulate myself that he has continued his office as General Secretary until my duties as President have ceased, and I am very sorry that we must part with him officially and that he must retire with me to the shelf of ex-Presidents.

The resolution was then adopted unanimously.

Mr. H. H. HART, Chicago.— I shall not trust myself to say much, for my heart is very full; but I wish to express my thanks for the very generous expression of appreciation of what I have tried to do. In my own mind the debit side of the Conference ledger is not

on the side of the Conference. From the time when I came into this organization, in 1883, a young minister just out of the pulpit, knowing nothing up to that time of its workings, I have been helped, uplifted, and guided by the members of this Conference. Mr. Wines has well said that I was one of his boys; for I got my first inspiration for this work in a letter which he wrote to the chairman of the Minnesota State Board of Charities,— a letter which was published in the Proceedings of 1889. The advice which he gave me at the start was my guide during my work on the State Board of Charities of Minnesota. I have sat at the feet of some of the wise men of the Conference, such men as Mr. Letchworth and Dr. Byers and Mr. Garrett and General Brinkerhoff and Mr. Paine; and especially have I found guidance from our friend and philosopher, Mrs. Barrows, who has been to me always a wise and inspiring friend.

The first Conference that I attended was in Louisville; and I got the spirit of these meetings in that paper read by George Cable, which sounded the death-knell of the lease system in the South. I saw what a conference like this could do without machinery, without legislative power, simply by its power to influence public opinion. This Conference is great; and it has been successful because it has adhered steadfastly to the cardinal principle that it would be a conference, that it would be a voice sounding throughout the nation and sounding through the world in favor of that which was right, that it would afford an open platform where differing views might find an opportunity for expression and publication. I hope this Conference will adhere steadfastly to the policy which it has till now maintained.

Personally, I believe that this is the greatest charity organization in the world, and that it is entitled to the undivided service of one man. It has taken a great deal of my time, and you are now proposing to ask another man to do the work of this Conference as a small part of the duties already laid upon him. It is impossible for any man to do justice to this work under such circumstances. It has astonished me that my work under such conditions has been received with such kindness, and that my faults and errors have been overlooked.

My feeling to-night is one of deep and enduring affection for the scores of people into whose faces I look,— people whom I know to be good people, true, unselfish, devoted. I thank God that I have been permitted to know them face to face. I value the friendship which I have in this Conference above any possession I have, except my children. It has been my joy and delight for eighteen years. I never expect to know any choicer friendship here or in heaven, and I do not want to. To have been the President of this Conference was the climax of my aspirations, so far as that goes. Personally, I owe you a debt of gratitude for the message of sympathy which you flashed to me a year ago from Topeka. It came when I needed it, and

I thank you from the bottom of my heart. I thank you for all the kindness you have shown to me and to one unspeakably dear to me. I hope that my successor may enjoy the same consideration, the same patience, the same confidence which you have exercised toward me. I have served as a Secretary for fourteen years in this Conference; and I hope that my successor will stay at least as long as I have stayed, and that you will give him more and more support, for he is a worthy man. I know few men with such devotion and capability. I pledge him any assistance that I can give.

We separate to-night to go to our various homes, but there is in our hearts a treasure of memories which will be perpetual. It has been part of my duty to make up the list of those who have passed from this Conference. It is a long and noble list. We do not know how soon our names will be added to it, but the Conference will go on. I believe it is making history. It is broadening in its influence, and it is certain to live and to help men. I believe there is in this Conference not only a spirit of benevolence, not only a spirit of altruism, but a personal bond of love for those who are down,— not for them in the mass and multitude, but for them individually and personally.

Once more I want to thank you with all my heart for the loving kindness I have experienced through all these years.

THE PRESIDENT.— I congratulate the Conference on its new General Secretary. He will do the work effectively; and, when the members come to know him as well as I do, they will learn to love him as I do. I introduce to the Conference our new General Secretary, Mr. Homer Folks.

Mr. HOMER FOLKS.— No one could be more deeply sensitive to the responsibilities that are involved in the duties of the position to which you have called me than I am. I appreciate the honor of being made the General Secretary of this Conference and the standard that has been set by my predecessor.

As we gather here in the closing hour, like comrades round a camp-fire, it occurs to me that it may be well to look backward as well as forward; and two or three things might be mentioned. I have noticed that in the five-minute discussions often from thirty seconds to one minute were lost in the statement that the speaker had come to listen and to learn. I missed very much the things that might have been said in those thirty seconds or that minute.

Having brought our historical subjects up to date, I have wondered whether another year we might not consider the subjects that have opened up so beautifully to-night. I also want to hear a little more discussion about what we are doing, about methods, because in my own work I want to adopt the best methods that have been found to succeed by those engaged elsewhere in the same work.

In addition to these hints I can only crave your indulgence in advance for the many ways in which the work of the Secretary will

be less well done, causing you more difficulties and embarrassments than the work of the past year.

The PRESIDENT.— I am sorry that our new President, Timothy Nicholson, could not be with us to-night. He is a man of rare character and devotion. A verse by Frances Havergal well expresses his spirit as well as the spirit of this Conference: —

> "Wherever in the world I am,
> In whatsoe'er estate,
> A fellowship of hearts I have
> To keep and cultivate,
> And a lowly work of love to do
> For the Lord, on whom I wait."

I bid you farewell with great regret. I wish that we might be together another week. I bespeak for my successor, for the new General Secretary, and for the chairmen of committees the same hearty sympathy and support that you have given to me, so that they may look back on the next Conference, as I do on this one, with gratitude to and affection for its members.

Adjourned *sine die* at 10 P.M.

TREASURER'S REPORT FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPT. 30, 1901.

ALFRED O. CROZIER, *Treasurer, in account with* THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

1900		*Dr.*	
Oct. 1.	To Balance on hand		$313.28
	Cash received from sales of Proceedings	$989.86	
	Cash received from advertising	60.00	
	Cash received from membership fees	3,002.45	
	Cash received from visitors' fees	118.00	
	Cash received from Local Committee	800.00	
	Cash received from donations	15.00	
	Cash received from Secretary, (deposit returned)	100.00	$5,085.31
			$5,398.59

	Cr.		
	By Cash for publishing and shipping Proceedings	$2,079.63	
	Cash paid for publishing *Bulletin*	567.23	
	Cash paid for printing, etc.	413.22	
	Cash paid for postage, etc.	276.66	
	Cash paid for Secretary's salary (balance previous year)	50.00	
	Cash paid Secretary's salary	500.00	
	Cash paid Secretary's travelling expenses (Topeka, Oakland, Cal., St. Louis, New York, Cleveland, Toronto, Omaha, and Washington)	106.42	
	Cash paid for clerk hire	660.85	
	Cash paid for reporting and editing	267.50	
	Cash paid for reporting for newspapers	150.00	
	Cash paid for rent (balance previous year)	20.00	
	Cash paid for rent (one year)	120.00	
	Cash paid for miscellaneous expenses	71.53	$5,283.04
Sept. 30.	Balance in the treasury		115.55
			$5,398.59

Respectfully submitted,

ALFRED O. CROZIER, *Treasurer.*

GRAND RAPIDS, MICHIGAN.

TREASURER'S COMPARATIVE STATEMENT.

	Year ending Sept. 30, 1899.		Year ending Sept. 30, 1900.		Year ending Sept. 30, 1901.	
RECEIPTS.						
Balance on hand beginning year,		$967.89		$268.33		$313.28
Cash from sales of Proceedings,	$1,071.03		$991.25		$989.86	
Cash from membership fees and subscriptions to the *Bulletin* .	2,804.20		2,905.41		3,120.45	
Cash from advertising	60.00				60.00	
Cash from Local Committee . .	800.00		685.90		800.00	
Cash from miscellaneous receipts,	12.92	4,748.15		4,582.56	115.00	5,085.31
		$5,716.04		$4,850.89		$5,398.59
DISBURSEMENTS.						
Paid for publishing Proceedings,	$2,007.60		$1,971.17		$2,079.63	
Paid for publishing *Bulletin* . .	321.45		271.32		567.23	
Paid for printing, etc.	490.69		337.98		413.22	
Paid for postage, etc.	948.80		257.38		276.66	
Paid for salaries, etc.	1,512.49		1,422.94 *		1,734.77	
Paid for office furniture . . .						
Paid for miscellaneous expenses,	166.68	5,447.71	276.82	4,537.61	211.53	5,283.04
Paid for cash advances						
Balance on hand, closing year .		$268.33		$313.28		$115.55

* Secretary's salary (14 months)	$550.00
Clerk hire	660.85
Secretary's travelling expenses	106.42
Reporting and editing Conference Proceedings	417.50
Total, as above	$1,734.77

STATEMENT OF RESOURCES AND LIABILITIES TAKEN FROM THE BOOKS OF THE GENERAL SECRETARY.

	Sept. 30, 1898.		Sept. 30, 1899.		Sept. 30, 1900.		Sept. 30, 1901.	
RESOURCES.								
Cash on hand		$968		$267		$313		$116
Accounts receivable:								
State Boards	$588		$572		$484		$547	
Miscellaneous	466	1,054	619	1,191	663	1,147	441	988
Proceedings on hand	$1,940		$2,359		$2,523		$2,683	
Electro plates	300	2,240	300	2,659	200	2,723	150	2,833
Office furniture		176		176		125		100
Total		$4,338		$4,293		$4,308		$4,037
LIABILITIES.								
Proceedings due:								
Members			$950		$908		$1,040	
Purchasers		$1,619	444	$1,394	414	$1,322	465	$1,505
Accounts payable		89		185		146		
Total		$1,708		$1,579		$1,468		$1,505
NET RESOURCES		$2,730		$2,614		$2,840		$2,532

Report of copies of Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction on hand Oct. 1, 1901:—

Year.	*No.*	*Year.*	*No.*
1874	87	1890	147
1875	38	1891	216
1877	7	1892	886
1878	4	1893	539
1881	2	1894	440
1882	23	1895	347
1883	26	1896	190
1884	147	1897	397
1885	35	1898	677
1886	24	1899	928
1887	260	1900	1,162
1888	258	Total	7,564
1889	724		

LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

N.B.— Members who were in attendance at Washington are marked *.

ALABAMA.

Birmingham.

Allen, B. M., Allen Bldg.

East Lake.

*Griffin, C. D., Supt., Ala. Boys' Indus. Sch.

Livingston.

*Tutwiler, Miss Julia S., Principal, Ala. Normal College for Girls.

Tuscaloosa.

Searcy, S. T., M.D.

ALASKA.

Jackson, Rev. Sheldon, D.D., LL.D., Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

ARKANSAS.

Conway.

Millar, A. C., Pres., Hendrix College.

CALIFORNIA.

Los Angeles.

Lindley, Walter, M.D., Pres., Bd. of Trustees, Whittier State Sch., 1414 S. Hope St.

Oakland.

Borland, Mrs. Sarah C., Director, Asso. Char., 1157 Franklin St.
Ebell Society, 13th and Harrison Sts.

Pala.

*Golsh, Miss Flora.

Palo Alto.

*Camp, William, Del., Asso. Char.

Redlands.

Sterling, Mrs. E. C., Crescent Ave.

San Francisco.

Associated Charities, 601 Commercial St.
Banning, B. R., 305 Larkin St.
*Brown, Charlotte Blake, M.D., 1212 Sutter St.
Bunnell, James S., 49 2d St.
Davis, Horace, Pres., Cal. State Conf. of Char. and Cor., 134 California St.
Levy, Meyer H., Sec., Eureka Benev. Ass'n, Mount Zion Hosp., 436 O'Farrell St.
Putnam, Osgood, Director, Asso. Char., 401 California St.
Symmes, Frank J., Vice-Pres., San Francisco Settlement Ass'n, 725 Mission St.

Stanford University.

Smith, Mrs. Albert W., Associate Prof. of Sociology, Leland Stanford, Jr., Univ.

COLORADO.

Boulder.

Baker, James H., Pres., Univ. of Col.
Williams, Mrs. Harriet E., Member, Bd. Co. Visitors; Dist. Supt., Chdn.'s Home Soc.

Colorado Springs.

Ehrich, L. R., Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
*Evans-Carrington, Rev. E., 227 E. Cucharra St.
Slocum, William F., Pres., Col. College.

Denver.

Baker, Mrs. E. B., State Supt., Prison Work, W. C. T. U., 1358 Gilpin St.
Decker, Mrs. Sarah S., Pres., State Bd. Char. and Cor., 1550 Sherman Ave.
Friedman, Rabbi W. S., Member, State Bd. Char.
*George, Mrs. S. Izetta, Sec., Char. Org. Soc., 35 Court House.
Lawney, Eleanor, M.D., Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
LeFevre, Mrs. Owen E., Pres., Denver Orph. Home Ass'n, 1311 York St.
Malone, Rev. T. H., Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
Orman, S. B., Governor; Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
State Home for Dep. Chdn., 3233 Bert St.
*Stonaker, C. L., Sec., State Bd. Char. and Cor.
Storrs, O. S., Vice-Pres., State Bd. Char. and Cor., 520 Quincy Bldg.
Woman's Club of Denver.

Golden.

*Kimball, G. H., Sec., Bd. Control, State Indus. Sch. for Boys.
Olds, Barnard L., Supt., State Indus. Sch.

Pueblo.

Adams, Alva.
*McDonald, Mrs. W. H., Sec., Asso. Char., 304 N. Main St.; Sec., State Sch. for Deaf and Blind, Colorado Springs.

CONNECTICUT.

Cromwell.

Hallock, F. K., M.D., Med. Director, Cromwell Hall.

Danbury.

Merritt, C. H., Chairman, Exec. Com., Danbury Relief Soc.

Deep River.

*Spencer, George F., Member, Conn. State Bd. Char.

Fairfield.

Glover, Mrs. Emily H., Fairfield Co. Home for Neg. and Dep. Chdn., Norwalk, and Conn. Chdn.'s Aid Soc., Hartford.

Farmington.

Pope, Miss Theodate.

Hartford.

Bunce, Jonathan, Pres., Phœnix Mut. Life Ins. Co., 61 Edwards St.
*Down, Edwin A., M.D., Pres., State Bd. Char., 703 Asylum Ave.
Gilbert, B. S., Hartford Hosp.
*Green, David I., Supt., Char. Org. Soc., 57 Trumbull St.
Greene, Col. Jacob L., Director, Char. Org. Soc., 57 Trumbull St.
*Hall, Miss Mary, Member, State Bd. Char., 98 Pratt St.
Hartranft, C. D., Pres., Hartford Theol. Sem., 82 Gillett St.
Howe, Harmon G., M.D., Exec. Com., Hartford Hosp., 137 High St.
Huntington, Rev. J. T., Director, Char. Org., 17 Clinton St.
Merriam, Prof. A. R., 314 Collins St.
Perkins, Edward C.

Lakeville.

*Knight, Geo. H., M.D., Supt., Conn. Sch. for Imbeciles.
*Knight, Mrs. G. H.

Litchfield.

Buel, John L., M.D.
Woodruff, George M.

Meriden.

*Williams, C. M., Supt., Sch. for Boys.

Middletown.

*Atwater, W. O., Prof., Wesleyan Univ.
*Fairbank, W. G., Supt., Conn. Indus. Sch. for Girls.
*Fairbank, Mrs. W. G., Asst. Supt. and Visiting Agt., State Indus. Sch. for Girls.
Fisher, Willard, Prof. of Economics and Social Science, Wesleyan Univ.
Noble, Henry S., M.D., Asst. Supt., Conn. Hosp. for Insane.
Page, C. W., M.D., Supt., Conn. Hosp. for the Insane.
*Payne, Edward, Director, Conn. Indus. Sch. for Girls, 181 S. Main St.

New Britain.

Camp, David N., Pres., Erwin Home, 9 Camp St.
*Finch, Alfred S., Agent, Char. Org. Soc., 58 W. Main St.
Platt, F. G., Member, New Britain Char. Org.

New Haven.

Bacon, Miss Rebekah G., Member, State Bd. Char., 307 Crown St.
Bennett, Mrs. Thos. G., 258 Church St.
Blackman, Rev. Wm. F., Prof. Christian Ethics, Yale Univ.; Director, Org. Char. Ass'n, 253 St. Ronan St.
Brewer, Wm. H., Pres., State Bd. Health; Mgr., Temporary Home for Neg. Chdn., 408 Orange St.
Brown, Robert, Sec., Yale Univ. Observatory, Observatory Pl.
Farnam, Prof. Henry W., Yale Univ.; Director, Org. Char. Ass'n, 43 Hillhouse Ave.
Fisher, Irving.
Galpin, Samuel A., Box 97.
Porter, Joseph, Chairman Com., Welcome Hall Mission, 215 Whitney Ave.
Preston, Sherwood O., Agt., Org. Char. Ass'n, 200 Orange St.
Sheldon, Chas. A., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n.
Stokes, Anson Phelps, Jr., Sec., Yale Univ.; Member, Advisory Council, Lowell House; Member, Bd. Directors New Haven Org. Char.
Welch, Pierce N.

Norfolk.

Bridgman, H. H., Member, State Bd. Char.

Norwich.

Gilman, Miss Emily S., Member, United Workers of Norwich; Member, Rocknook Chdn.'s Home Com., 380 Washington St.

Putnam.

Warner, Edgar M.

Stamford.

Associated Charities, 6 Burlington Arcade.
Leeds, C. H., Member, Asso. Char. of Stamford, 16 Willow St.

Waterbury.

Hillard, Miss Mary R., St. Margaret's.
*Kellogg, Chas. P., Sec., State Bd. Char.

Westport.

Ruland, F. D., M.D., Med. Supt., Westport Sanitarium.

Wethersfield.

Garvin, A., Warden, State Prison.

Winsted.

Cooke, Lorrin A.
Gay, Henry.

DELAWARE.

Marshallton.

Twitchell, H. C., Supt., Ferris Indus. Sch.

Wilmington.

Associated Charities, 602 West St.
Bancroft, Wm. P., Sec., Trustees, Del. Hosp.
Gawthrop, Alfred, Ferris Indus. Sch.
*Jackson, Mrs. Emma S., Supt., Del. Indus. Sch. for Girls.
Jackson, Henry M., Asst. Supt., Del. Indus. Sch. for Girls.
*Meserve, A. S., Warden, Newcastle Co. Workhouse.
*Warner, Mrs. Emalea P., Cor. Sec., Asso. Char., 1202 Delaware Ave.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Washington.

*Anderson, Mrs. Eva K., 1411 K St., N.W.
*Barlow, Mrs. Kate B., Bd. Chdn.'s Guardians, 1009 O St., N.W.
*Barrett, Mrs. Kate Waller, M.D., Supt., Nat. Florence Crittendon Mission, 218 3d St., N.W.
Blout, E. L., 710 7th St., N.W.
*Bradford, Rev. J. H., Vice-Pres., Asso. Char.; Cor. Sec., Boys' and Girls' Nat. Home and Employment Ass'n, 904 M St., N.W.
*Butler, Rev. C. H., 1107 11th St., N.W.
*Cheshire, Mrs. Bessie B., Member, Dist. Com., Asso. Char. and W. R. C., 105 11th St., S.E.

Washington, *Continued*—

*Douglass, John W., Agt., Bd. of Chdn.'s Guardians, 1705 35th St., N.W.
*Downey, Wm. F., Pres., League of the Good Samaritan, 1013 17th St., N.W.
*Dynes, John H., Member, Dist. Com., Asso. Char., Census Office.
Gen. John, *Eaton, Del. from Alaska, appointed by Gov. John Brady, The Concord.
*Edson, John Joy, Ln. and Tr. Bldg.
*Evermann, Mrs. Barton W., 412 T St., N.W.
*Foster, Miss Estelle, Clerk, Bd. Chdn.'s Guardians, 1721 K St., N.W.
*Foster, Mrs. J. Ellen, Am. Nat. Red Cross, The Portner.
*Goddard, Wm. D., 109 1st St., N.E.
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*Watrous, Richard B., Sec., Citizens' Business League, Sentinel Bldg.

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New Richmond.

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*Martinez, Emilio, M.D., Director, Tamayo Disp.; Asst. Prof. Med., Univ. of Havana, 32 Neptuno St.
*San Martin, Julio, M.D., Pres., Bd. Mgrs., Ref. Sch. for Boys; Prof., Univ. of Havana, 7 Salud St. (Altos).
Suarez, M. R., Department of Charities.

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Vedado.

*Pla, Juan M., M.D., 69 9th St.

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JAPAN.

Tokyo.

*Namae, Rev. T., Acting Supt., Japanese Christians' Home, 17 Concord St., Brooklyn, N.Y.

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Godoy, José F., Representative of Mexican Rep., 1700 15th St., Washington, D.C.

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STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

State Capitol, Denver.

[Established by Act of 1891, approved March 19, 1901.]

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Mrs. Sarah Platt-Decker.....Denver
O. S. Storrs.....Denver
Dr. Eleanor Lawney.....Denver
Rev. Thomas H. Malone.....Denver
Rabbi William S. Friedman.....Denver
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CONNECTICUT.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

State Capitol, Hartford.

[Established by Chapter 45, Public Acts of Laws of 1873, passed July 1, 1873.]

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Miss Rebekah G. Bacon.....New Haven
Miss Mary Hall .....Hartford
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BOARD OF CHARITIES.

Office, 464 Louisiana Ave.

[Established by Act of Congress, approved June 6, 1900.]

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George William Cook.....Washington
Simon Wolf.....Washington
Dr. Charles P. Neill.....Washington
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THE PRISON COMMISSION OF GEORGIA.

Atlanta.

[Established by Acts of 1897, passed December 21, 1897.]

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Clement A. Evans.....Atlanta
Thomas Eason.....McRae

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Jacob C. Moore, *Warden*.....Rome
Goodloe Yancey, *Secretary*.....Athens

ILLINOIS.

THE BOARD OF STATE COMMISSIONERS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

State House, Springfield.

[Established by an Act of Legislature, approved April 9, 1869.]

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John Gibbons.....Chicago
Ensley Moore.....Jacksonville

Officers of the Board.

William Jayne, *President*.....Springfield
J. Mack Tanner, *Secretary*.....Springfield
Frank D. Whipp, *Chief Clerk*.....Springfield

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BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

Room 52, State House, Indianapolis.

[Established by Chapter 37, Acts of 1889, passed February 28, 1889.]

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Demarchus C. Brown.....Irvington
Mary A. Spink.....Indianapolis
John R. Elder.....Indianapolis
Margaret F. Peelle.....Indianapolis
Timothy Nicholson .....Richmond

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Amos W. Butler, *Secretary*.....Indianapolis

IOWA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, Des Moines.

[Established by Chapter 118, Laws of the 27th General Assembly, passed March 29, 1898.]

L. G. Kinne.....Des Moines
John Cownie.....South Amana
G. S. Robinson.....Sioux City

Officers of the Board.

L. G. Kinne, *Chairman*.....Des Moines
F. S. Treat, *Secretary*.....Des Moines

KANSAS.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF THE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS OF THE STATE OF KANSAS.

Topeka.

[Established by Chapter 9 of the Laws of 1868.]

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R. Vincent ..... Washington
George W. Kanavel ..... Halstead
Edwin Snyder ..... Oskaloosa
F. H. Dolan ..... Salina

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BOARD OF STATE AID AND CHARITIES.

Office, Maryland Telephone Building, Baltimore.

[Established by Act, approved April 11, 1900.]

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James Bond ..... Baltimore
John Lee Carroll ..... Ellicott City
Elihu E. Jackson ..... Salisbury
Samuel Rosenthal, Jr. ..... Baltimore

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James R. Brewer ..... Baltimore

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819 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Md.

[Established by Chapter 487 of the Laws of 1886.]

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Thomas S. Latimer, M. D. ..... Baltimore
I. E. Atkinson, M.D. ..... Baltimore
C. Birnie, M.D. ..... Taneytown
The Attorney-general, *ex officio*.

Officers of the Commission.

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MASSACHUSETTS.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

State House, Boston.

[Established by Chapter 79 of the Laws of 1879, passed April 30, 1879. Amended by Chapter 101 of Acts of 1886 and Chapter 433, § 24, of Acts of 1898.]

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Henrietta G. Codman, *Vice-Chairman* ..... Brookline
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State House, Boston, Mass.

[Established by Chapter 433 of the Laws of 1898, passed October 1, 1898.]

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Albert L. Harwood.....Newton Centre
Francis B. Gardner.....Brockton

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Henry Parkman.....Boston
Arthur H. Wellman.....Malden
Mrs. Margaret P. Russell.....Boston
Dr. Mary V. O'Callaghan.....Worcester
J. Warren Bailey, *Secretary*.

MICHIGAN.

BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

Capitol, Lansing.

[Established by Act 192 of the Laws of 1871, passed April 17, 1871.]

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Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, D.D., Grand Rapids
Charles W. Light.....Saginaw
Edward W. Jenks, M.D.....Detroit
Thomas A. Hilton.....Coldwater

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L. C. Storrs, *Secretary*.....Lansing

MINNESOTA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, St. Paul.

[Established by Chapter 122, Laws of 1901, approved April 2, 1901.]

Hon. Samuel W. Leavett.....Litchfield
Hon. O. B. Gould.....Winona
Hon. William E. Lee.....Long Prairie

STATE LUNACY COMMISSION.

State Capitol, St. Paul.

Dr. C. O. Cooley.....Madelia
Dr. Charles E. Riggs.....St. Paul
Dr. W. F. Milligan.....Wabasha

MISSOURI.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Jefferson City.

[Established by Senate Bill 320 of the Laws of 1897, passed March 19, 1897.]

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Mrs. Julia C. Hurt.....Kansas City
H. E. Robinson.....Maryville
R. M. Abercrombie.....St. Joseph
C. M. Johnson.....St. Charles
F. V. Loos.....Liberty

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Wesley L. Robertson, *Secretary*.....Gallatin

NERBASKA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC LANDS AND BUILDINGS.

Capitol, Lincoln.

[Established by Chapter 83 of the Laws of 1877, passed February 13, 1877. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1875.]

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F. N. Prout.....Lincoln
William Sluefar.....Lincoln
G. W. Marsh.....Lincoln

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G. W. Marsh, *Secretary*.....Lincoln

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

State Library Building, Concord.

[Established by Chapter 116 of the Laws of 1895, passed July 1, 1895.]

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[Established by Legislative Enactment, March 24, 1899.]

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NEW YORK.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 951 of the Laws of 1867, approved May 23, 1867. Re-established by Chapter 546 of the Laws of 1896, approved May 12, 1896. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

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The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 283, Laws of 1889, approved May 14, 1889. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

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William L. Parkhurst.....Albany
William Church Osborn.....New York

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Wesley M. Jones.....Raleigh
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BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

State House, Columbus.

[Established by Chapter 4, Revised Statutes of 1867, passed April 17, 1867.]

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M. D. Follett.....Marietta
H. C. Ranney.....Cleveland
W. A. Hale.....Dayton

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BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

1225 Sansom Street, Philadelphia.

[Established by Act of Legislature, passed April 4, 1869.]

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Henry M. Boies.....Scranton
George I. M'Leod.....Philadelphia
William B. Gill.....Philadelphia
George W. Ryon.....Shamokin
Francis J. Torrance.....Allegheny
Isaac Johnson.....Media
Patrick C. Boyle.....Oil City
Ralph Blum.....Philadelphia
Cadwalader Biddle.....Philadelphia

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Cadwalader Biddle, *General Agent and Secretary*.....Philadelphia

RHODE ISLAND.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

State House, Providence.

[Established by Chapter 291, General Laws, passed May Session, 1869.]

Gov. William Gregory.....Wickford
Walter A. Read.....Chepachet
George Lewis Smith.....Nayatt
Frank F. Olney.....Providence
James F. McCusker.....Pontiac
R. H. I. Goddard.....Providence
Philippe Boucher.....Woonsocket
John J. Watson, Jr.....Providence

Officers of the Board.

Gov. William Gregory, *Chairman*....Wickford
Charles H. Peckham, *Secretary*....Providence

SOUTH DAKOTA.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Secretary's Office, Bridgewater.

[Established by Chapter 5, Session Laws of 1890, passed March 6, 1890. Provided for in the State Constitution.]

B. M. Lien.....Sioux Falls
L. B. Laughlin.....Bridgewater
J. P. Davis.....Huron
George W. Kingsbury.....Yankton
F. M. Steere.....Wessington Springs

Officers of the Board.

B. M. Lien, *President*.....Sioux Falls
George W. Kingsbury, *Secretary*.....Yankton

TENNESSEE.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

707 Belmont Avenue, Nashville.

[Established by Chapter 193 of the Laws of 1895, passed May 13, 1895.]

Lewis Tillman.....Knoxville
Hugh W. Tate, M.D.....Bolivar
W. H. Taylor, M.D.....New Market
Gov. Benton McMillin, *ex officio*.....Nashville
James A. Orman, D.D.....Nashville
W. R. Cole.....Nashville
W. T. Harris, D.D.....Jackson

Officers of the Board.

James A. Orman, D.D., *President*...Nashville
Charles J. Sawrie, *Secretary*.....Nashville

WASHINGTON.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

Olympia.

[Established by Laws of 1901, Chapter 119 (H. F. No. 222).]

Ernest Lister.....Tacoma
Henry Drum.....Olympia
C. S. Reed.....Olympia

Officers of the Board.

Ernest Lister, *Chairman*.....Tacoma

WISCONSIN.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

State Capitol, Madison.

[Established by Chapter 202 of the Laws of 1891.]

William P. Lyon.....Madison
Herman Crotophorst.....Baraboo
Andrew G. Nelson.....Waupaca
George W. Bishop.....Rhinelander
Nathaniel B. Treat.....Monroe

Officers of the Board.

William P. Lyon, *President*.....Madison
George W. Bishop, *Vice-President*.....Rhinelander
M. J. Tappin, *Secretary*.....Madison

WYOMING.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

State Capitol, Cheyenne.

De Forest Richards.....Douglas
Fenimore Chatterton.....Rawlins
T. T. Tynan.....Sheridan
Le Roy Grant.....Laramie
G. E. Abbott.....Cheyenne

Officers of the Board.

De Forest Richards, *President*.....Douglas
T. T. Tynan, *Secretary*.....Sheridan

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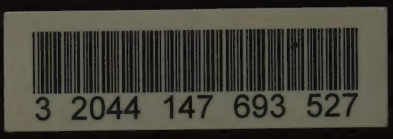
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